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Giving and sharing: The predictors and outcomes of online donor appreciation

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By

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Statement of original authorship

The work contained in this thesis has not been previously submitted to meet the requirements for an award at this or any other higher education institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made.

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Kathleen Wendy Chell

August, 2016

"The important thing is not to stop questioning. Curiosity has its own reason for existing. One cannot help but be in awe, contemplating the mysteries of eternity, of life, of the marvellous structure of reality. It is enough if one tries merely to understand a little of this mystery every day"

Albert Einstein

Abstract

Not-for-profit organisations (NFPs) are increasingly realising the importance of nurturing donor relationships early to motivate donor action, such as repeat donations, and often use donor appreciation as a key strategy. Despite the widespread practice of sending a thank-you letter or email to donors, attrition rates remain high across the donation of blood, time and money. This suggests the need to explore alternate forms of donor appreciation to improve donor retention. A focus on online platforms to provide donor appreciation would be insightful, given the increased connectivity between users and opportunities for NFPs to affordably leverage this technology. Existing research has focused on establishing a relationship between providing donor appreciation and repeat donation behaviour, but not understanding how the relationship is formed. Therefore, this research sought to identify the underlying processes explaining this relationship within an online context (RQ1); *how does online donor appreciation (acknowledgement and recognition) stimulate repeat donation activity?* Further, sharing online recognition (e.g. Facebook badge) is a decision made by the donor, not the NFP. Therefore, this research sought to address (RQ2) *why do donors choose to share (or not share) donation recognition on social networking sites?* Lastly, this research investigated whether the category of donation affected donors' response to receiving online donor appreciation and sharing donor recognition on social networking sites (RQ3); w*hat is the effect of donation category on donor responses to online donor appreciation?*

To address the three research questions, this thesis employed a mixed-methods approach with a two-stage research design. Study One qualitatively investigated all three research questions using interviews (n=20) with Australian donors aged 18 to 40 who have recently donated blood, time and/or money. Study two employed a two-part quantitative research design using online surveys to empirically test the conceptual models developed in study one. Study 2A address RQ1 and used a scenario-based experimental design collecting data from a sample of Australian blood donors recruited through the Australian Red Cross Blood Service (n=356). Study 2B addressed RQ2 and RQ3 using online surveys, collecting data from blood donors and volunteers recruited through Australian NFPs, and money donors recruited conveniently (n=340).

Together, the findings of Study One and Study Two provide three major contributions. First, this thesis contributed to identity verification theory by demonstrating that online donor acknowledgement (i.e. thank-you email) and recognition (i.e. Facebook badge) to be useful inputs informing donors' self-and reflected appraisal. Yet the type of online donor appreciation (i.e. recognition over acknowledgement) only affected donors' reflected appraisal, not self-appraisal. Three marketing outcomes were identified to result from donors' appraisals; accountability and emotional value drive commitment, which in turn increased intentions to donate again. Secondly, the research offers a theoretical framework, consisting of individual, social and brand-specific factors, to understand donors' decision-making process for disclosing donation activity on SNS; in particular firm-generated eWOM strategies. Specifically, tendency for self-disclosure (individual factor), social norms and social risk (social factors), and involvement and advocacy (brand-specific factors) were identified as significant determinants of sharing donor recognition on SNSs (e.g. Facebook badge). Lastly, the nature of donations of blood, time and money were found to vary according to the investment of self (i.e. cost of donation) and access to resources (i.e. opportunity to donate). However, the category of donation was only found to affect the act of sharing donor recognition on SNSs, not the outcome processes that result from receiving online donor appreciation.

From a managerial viewpoint, this thesis has practical implications that will inform the strategy development for effective online donor appreciation programs, solicitation efforts to encourage donors to share online recognition on SNSs, and how to approach different categories of donation. Overall, online donor appreciation was found to play an important role in influencing repeat donation activity, and should be given sufficient consideration by NFPs. The research findings demonstrate that online acknowledgement and recognition can be effective tools for NFPs to build relationships with its donors, and subsequently reduce donor attrition.

Key Words: Donation, retention, online donor appreciation, acknowledgment, recognition, social networking sites, self-disclosure, identity verification

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Publications from Thesis

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Chell, K. (2015). *Social media and donation: An act for good or evil?* Conference presentation for the 'The Magic of Technology in Social Marketing' special session, at the Academy of Marketing Conference (7-9 July). Limerick, Ireland.

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List of Abbreviations

ACNC	Australian Charities and Not-for-profits Commission
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
eWOM	Electronic Word-of-Mouth
NFP(s)	Not-for-Profit Organisation(s)
RQ	Research Question
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SNG(s)	Social Networking Game(s)
SNS(s)	Social Networking Sites(s)
WOM	Word-of-Mouth

Glossary of Terms

Blood donation

Individual, voluntary donation of whole blood to a Blood Donation Organisation (e.g. Australian Red Cross Blood Service)

Donation behaviour

Giving a resource to a not-for-profit organisation (e.g. blood, time, money), on one or multiple occasions, without receiving a substantial benefit in return

Donor appreciation

An expression of gratitude by a NFP to individuals who undertake desired donation behaviour

Electronic word-of-mouth

Informal communication between individuals concerning evaluations of products and services via the internet

Firm-generated electronic word-of mouth

Word-of-mouth communication created as the result of actions taken by a firm

Money/ Monetary donation

Giving a sum of money directly to a NFP (not indirectly through another's fundraising efforts) without receiving a substantial benefit in return (i.e. using funds to buy donated goods is not considered a monetary donation)

Not-for-Profit Organisation

A type of organisation that does not operate for the profit or personal gain of the owner(s)

Time donation (volunteering)

Performing a voluntary, regular or episodic formal service for a charitable organisation without compensation during one or a few occasions

Word-of-mouth

Informal communication between individuals concerning evaluations of products and service

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1. Introduction

Australia's not-for-profit sector is large and diverse (Productivity Commission, 2010) with over 54,000 not-for-profit organisations (NFPs) registered with the Australian Charities and Not-for-profits Commission (ACNC) at the end of September 2015. Reflecting a 10% increase in size since October 2011 (McGregor-Lowndes, 2014), this trend is resulting in a more competitive not-for-profit sector with competition for donor support continuing to intensify across donation categories; blood, time and money.

The study of individual donation behaviour towards NFPs has been broadly investigated in an attempt to further understand individuals' adoption and continued participation in donations of blood, time and money, as well as to establish the most effective means of influencing its occurrence (Bekkers & Wiepking, 2007; Bednall & Bove, 2011). The dominant view in the literature supports altruism as the primary reason for donation behaviour (Piliavin & Callero, 1991; Glynn et al., 2002; Alessandrini, 2007; Steele et al., 2008). However, a growing body of research questions the role of altruism and asserts that donating is personally rewarding, and motivated by a desire to benefit both others and oneself (Harbaugh, 1998; Bennett, 2003; Andreoni & Petrie, 2004; Sargeant & Jay, 2004a; Grace & Griffin, 2006). Yet donor attrition remains a major source of concern for NFPs. It is particularly alarming when up to 50% of monetary donors are lost after their first or second donation (Sargeant & Jay, 2004b; Merchant, Ford, & Sargeant, 2010) and approximately 40% of Australian blood donors fail to return within two years to donate again (Masser, Bednall, White, & Terry, 2012). Although information on volunteer attrition rates is limited, the sector has been characterised by high turnover (Dollard, Rogers, Cordingley, & Metzer, 1999; Osborn, 2008; Barraza, 2011).

Donor attrition is particularly problematic as sourcing new donors involves increased marketing costs associated with recruitment strategies (Barber & Levis, 2013; van Dongen, 2015) and volunteer training (Holmes & Smith, 2012). For example, on average it costs the Australian Red Cross Blood Service approximately $60 to recruit a blood donor, but only $20 for retention (K. Feliciak, personal communication, January 5, 2016). Within a fundraising context, the acquisition cost to recruit a new

monetary donor is often higher than the amount the donor will give in their first donation (The Institute of Fundraising, 2013). NFPs are increasingly realising the importance of nurturing donor relationships to encourage repeat donations (Polonsky & Sargeant, 2007), as more frequent and experienced donors tend to have stronger relationships with NFPs (Lacey, 2007; Waters, 2008). One strategy often used to foster donor relationships in an attempt to reduce donor attrition is through donor appreciation. However, despite the relative widespread practice of sending a thank-you letter or email to donors (Low, Butt, Paine, & Smith, 2007; Merchant et al., 2010), attrition rates remain high. Although an attrition rate of zero is relatively unachievable, there is a need to explore alternate forms of donor appreciation to improve donor retention. Further, NFPs are increasingly turning to online platforms to engage with donors and provide donor appreciation. Consequently, this thesis investigated the use of online donor appreciation strategies (acknowledgement and recognition) to reduce donor attrition by encouraging repeat donation behaviour.

1.2. Research Background: Online Donor Appreciation

Donor appreciation refers to an expression of gratitude by a NFP to individuals who undertake desired donation behaviour (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998), and can be in the form of both private acknowledgement (e.g. thank-you email) or public recognition, such as an award or branded token (ADRP, 2013). This distinction between private and public donor appreciation is important to make, as there is mixed evidence for the use of acknowledgement and recognition on repeat donation rates. Existing literature shows that individuals may prefer to be discrete about their donation behaviour, but still appreciate acknowledgement from a NFP (Merchant et al., 2010; Foth, Satchell, Seeburger, & Russell-Bennett, 2013). Alternatively, there are those who want to donate conspicuously and receive recognition publicly for making a charitable donation (Grace & Griffin, 2006; Lacetara & Macis, 2010). Although empirical support exists for a relationship between donor appreciation and repeat donation activity (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998; Merchant et al., 2010; Winterich, Mittal, & Aquino, 2013), there is little understanding as to how different forms of donor appreciation (acknowledgement and recognition) can influence a donor's ongoing donation behaviour.

Traditionally, donor acknowledgment and recognition have utilised offline means of communication, such as branded gifts, listing donor names in local papers and mailing a letter of thanks. However, offline donor appreciation does not account for the new level of connectedness, interaction and opportunities for self-presentation experienced by individuals online (Steffes & Burgee, 2009). With the growth in popularity of online sources of communication, particularly social media (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2009; Euromonitor International, 2010b), and increasing opportunities for NFPs to affordably leverage this technology, this research examined online forms of donor appreciation; specifically acknowledgement through email and recognition via social networking sites (SNSs).

1.2.1. Rationale for an online focus of donor appreciation

An online focus of donor appreciation was deemed necessary for five reasons; reach, cost, use by NFPs, means for self-expression and audience. Firstly, the expanding reach of the internet, with 86% of Australian households currently able to access the internet at home (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011), has accelerated consumer adoption of online communication channels. Internet users spend on average 10 hours per week on the internet; with 72% of users reporting 'social networking' as one of the most prevalent activities (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011). Secondly, some donors have expressed concerns over the cost implications to NFPs associated with offline forms of appreciation, such as receiving branded key rings, and thank-you letters (Bennett, 2007; Chmielewski, Bove, Lei, Neville, & Nagpal, 2012). Consequently, online forms of appreciation may be more appealing, as they present an opportunity for significant cost savings (Hart, Greenfield, & Sheeraz, 2007). Recognising this, NFPs are beginning to use online channels for donor acknowledgment and recognition, despite a lack of evidence of the impact on donation activity. For example, the Blood Service and American Red Cross have created a set of 'badges' that donors can share on SNSs (ARCBS, 2012).

Although the effect of online donor acknowledgement (e.g. thank-you email) is not expected to be different to offline acknowledgement (e.g. thank-you letter), it is expected that online recognition will differentially affect donor behaviour compared to existing offline means of recognition. Online platforms, particularly SNSs, provide individuals new self-expression opportunities to create identities using digital rather

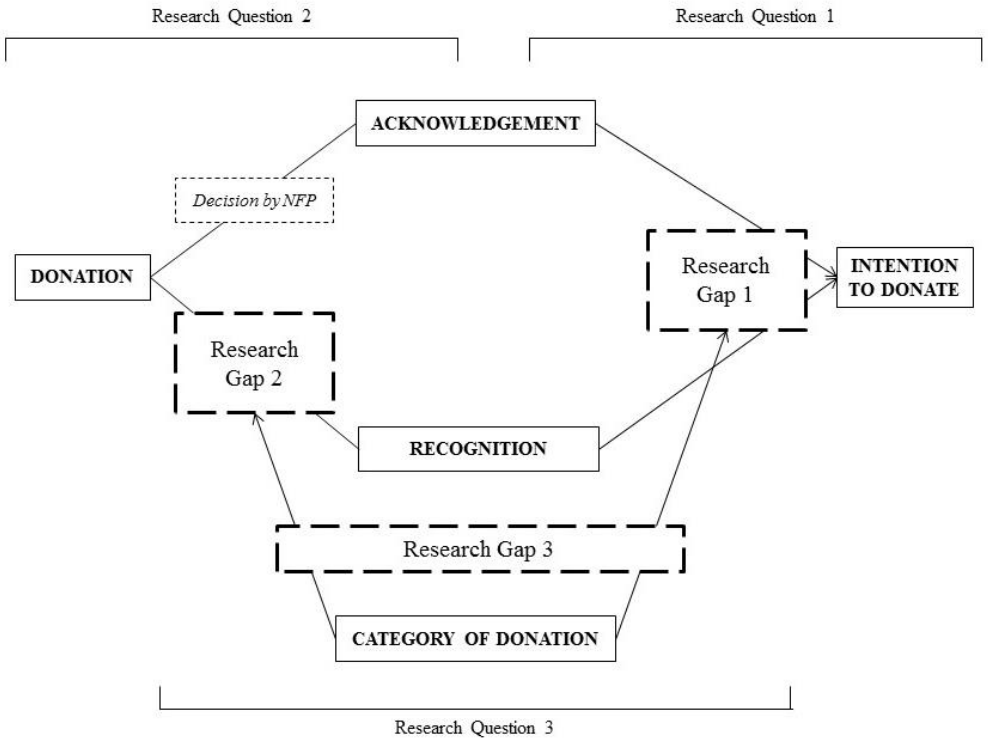
than physical referents (Schau & Gilly, 2003; Croft, 2013). Further, research has demonstrated that recognition only affects behaviour when the audience is known to the individual (Gächter & Fehr, 1999). Given the audience often consists of others with strong social ties to the individual, providing donor recognition on SNSs provides a greater means for social validation to support an individual's donation behaviour. Thus, SNSs provide a naturalistic and socially significant context in which to study the impact of donor recognition on donation behaviour. Notwithstanding, growth in academic interest in online donor acknowledgement and recognition mirrors the uptake of NFPs' use of online channels; both are at an emergent stage.

Furthermore, existing donor appreciation research has predominantly relied on donor intentions as the measured outcome of receiving donor appreciation. To further understand how online donor appreciation by a NFP impacts repeat donation activity, it is necessary to identify key marketing outcomes of online donor appreciation that are of importance to NFPs. Within the donation literature, researchers have identified donor value (Chell & Mortimer, 2014), commitment to the NFP (Merchant et al., 2010) and behavioural intentions (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998; Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2007a, 2007b; Merchant et al., 2010) as important outcomes of receiving donor appreciation. This thesis sought to extend existing knowledge, and identify marketing outcomes relevant to receiving online donor appreciation that drive favourable donation behaviour.

1.3. Research Gaps and Questions

Overall, three research gaps have been identified in the literature; (1) outcomes of online acknowledgement and recognition, (2) predictors of sharing online donor recognition, and (3) the potential moderation of donation category (blood, time or money) on these effects. A summary of the research gaps and questions are presented in Figure 1.1

Figure 1.1 Summary of Research Gaps and Research Questions



Despite a lack of understanding of how appreciation increases donation behaviour, NFPs often provide donor appreciation to motivate donor action, and are beginning to utilise online platforms to do so (ARCBS, 2012; Davis, 2012). Existing research has focused on establishing that a relationship exists between a NFP providing donor appreciation and repeat donation activity (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998; Lacetara & Macis, 2010; Merchant et al., 2010). However, there has been limited exploration addressing how this relationship is formed, despite evidence that some donors may prefer one form of donor appreciation over another (Grace & Griffin, 2006; Chelminski & Coulter, 2007). Understanding how acknowledgement and recognition is effective at enhancing donation behaviour is critical to the development of effective donor appreciation strategies that improve donor retention. Furthermore, existing research has been conducted predominantly within the offline environment which doesn't take into consideration the opportunities for greater self-expression and social validation from socially significant others that online recognition provides. Consequently this research aimed to address the following research question:

Research Question 1: How does online donor appreciation (acknowledgement and recognition) stimulate repeat donation activity?

Unlike the receipt of online donor acknowledgement which is directed by NFPs, receiving donor recognition through SNSs requires the donor to share an act of donation (e.g. via a badge). Therefore, understanding how online donor recognition influences repeat donation behaviour is superfluous unless such recognition is actually shared to SNSs by donors. The immediacy, interactivity and availability of social media platforms provide individuals new opportunities for self-presentation (Schau & Gilly, 2003); for which self-disclosure is a necessary strategy (Zhao, Grasmuck, & Martin, 2008; Varnali & Toker, 2015). Self-disclosure is a discretionary behaviour and refers to any personal information that a person communicates to others (Collins & Miller, 1994). Within this study, disclosure refers to sharing content to SNSs; in particular a badge that recognises donation activity.

With greater connectivity, SNSs provide a greater avenue for donors to receive social validation for their donation and it seems donors are leveraging this opportunity. Foth et al. (2013) reported that some blood donors, termed 'sharers' like to share their donation experience on SNSs for its semiotic potential for raising awareness and soliciting praise and encouragement from friends and peers. NFPs are also starting to facilitate this behaviour (ARCBS, 2012). Previous research has focused on delineating types of information shared (Nosko, Wood, & Molema, 2010; Emanuel et al., 2014), and predictors of sharing behaviour in general (e.g. SNS usage, number and frequency of posts). Such an aggregated approach to understanding sharing on SNSs has been helpful in studying overall SNS activity, but limits understanding around what motivates or deters individuals to post about specific topics, such as donation activity. This is important as overall sharing rates of donation activity appear to be low, with only 40% of social media users indicating they would share donation activity on SNSs (American Red Cross, 2014). Existing models of general sharing behaviour are insufficient to generalise to sharing donation activity (particularly donor recognition), due to the content being brand (NFP) related (Chen, Papazafeiropoulou, Chen, Duan, & Liu, 2014; Shao & Ross, 2015) and the unique inability to incentivise sharing behaviour. Therefore this study takes a topic-centred approach to donors' SNS self-disclosure to answer the following question:

> *Research Question 2: Why do donors choose to share (or not share) donation recognition on social networking sites?*

Furthermore, several significant motivational and self-disclosure differences have been identified between the donation of blood, time and money. For instance, blood donation is more strongly affected by moral obligation than donations of time or money (Lee, Piliavin, & Call, 1999), while volunteering is perceived to be more self-expressive than donating money (Reed, Aquino, & Levy, 2007). Further, whilst disclosure of donation activity is yet to be investigated, there is evidence to suggest that willingness to disclose may vary between categories of donation; particularly as sharing donation activity could be viewed as status-seeking behaviour (Kataria & Regner, 2015). Willingness to share donation activity appears relatively low for donations of money (American Red Cross, 2014), but slightly higher for blood donation (Dobele, Smith, Johnson, & Russell-Bennett, 2014) and volunteering (Bekkers, 2010). These differences could be attributed to the degree of 'investment of self' involved to perform an act of donation; where the higher the investment, the more important it is to advocate or receive personal benefits (Weyant, 1978). It is therefore arguable that differences may exist between the category of donation (i.e. donation of blood, time and money) regarding response to donor appreciation from a NFP, as well as determinants of sharing donor recognition on SNSs. Therefore, the final research question is:

> *Research Question 3: What is the effect of donation category on donor responses to online donor appreciation?*

1.4. Theoretical Frameworks

Two theoretical frameworks are used to address the research questions. Specifically, identity theory is used to understand how online donor appreciation influences repeat donation activity (RQ1) within the identity verification process. As donor recognition needs to be shared by donors to SNSs, this represents a form of self-disclosure; a key strategy used for self-presentation of one's identity. Therefore, self-disclosure theory will be used to explore determinants of donation disclosure decisions on SNSs, in particular donor recognition (RQ2).

1.4.1. Identity theory

Identity theory is grounded in the premise that one's self-concept is organised into a series of identities (e.g. father, volunteer) which hold certain behavioural expectations

(Charng, Piliavin, & Callero, 1988). Continued engagement in a particular activity encourages its internalisation as a component of one's self-definition (Stryker, 1980; Terry, Hogg, & White, 1999). When an identity is activated, a set of expectations and meanings serve as a standard for appropriate behaviour. To ensure congruency is achieved between the action and desired identity, individuals undertake identity verification from which a feedback loop is established. Identity verification is the process by which individuals appraise their actions in relation to identity standards (Stets & Carter, 2011). Appraisals refer simultaneously to a person's self-appraisal (i.e. personal evaluation) and reflected appraisal (i.e. evaluation of others' perceptions). These are informed by perceptual inputs (e.g. feedback) which are interpreted to yield conclusions about identity efficacy (Laverie, Kleine, & Kleine, 2002; Laverie & McDonald, 2007). Therefore appraisals form an important explanatory mechanism within the identity verification process between behaviour and self-definition. Of particular interest to this research is the relationship between perceptual inputs (e.g. impressions of others views, direct feedback, self-perceptions) and appraisals, and how online donor appreciation fits within this dynamic. This thesis extends existing literature (Kleine, Kleine, & Kernan, 1993; Laverie et al., 2002) and explores how formalised feedback (i.e. online donor acknowledgement and recognition) contributes to one's identity verification process.

1.4.2. Self-disclosure theory

When individuals choose to donate, this communicates something about the individual. Self-presentation theory argues that people are motivated to make a favourable impression on others (Goffman, 1959), and consequently adjust self-disclosure to convey (avoid) a desired (undesired) image. As in face-to-face social interactions, there is a process of self-presentation on SNSs which has been perceived as more reflexive as users have more time to carefully articulate their desired image through self-disclosures (Champagne, 2008). With the growth in SNS adoption, self-disclosure has become an influential theoretical concept in online communication research. For the purpose of this study, self-disclosure is examined within an online context; specifically sharing or 'posting' donation activity to SNSs. Further, electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) is a form of online self-disclosure, where individuals either encourage or discourage a product or service via the internet (Hennig-Thurau et al.,

2004). Disclosing information on SNSs about making a donation, such as by posting donor recognition to Facebook, would be considered positive eWOM as it demonstrates a positive attitude towards donating.

Prior research has identified a number of factors predicting general self-disclosure tendency, particularly around breadth, depth and frequency of disclosure, including individual differences, extroversion and privacy (Ignatius & Kokkonen, 2007; Trepte & Reinecke, 2011; Wang & Stefanone, 2013). Whilst this approach is important, there are very few studies that examine predictors of disclosing specific topics of interest on SNSs. For example, Van Gool, Van Ouytsel, Ponnet, and Walrave (2015) investigated intentions to share personal information about peer relations on Facebook, and Oleldorf-Hirsch and Sundar (2015) looked at sharing news content. However, donation activity is quite different and would be considered a form of altruistic consumption, where the user is not only disclosing interest based information concerning the cause, but also action-based information. Sharing donor recognition is also considered a form of firm-generated word-of-mouth, where disclosure is encouraged by the NFP and implemented by the donor (Godes & Mayzlin, 2009). It is important for NFPs to understand drivers of sharing donor recognition, as electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) has been found to increase brand trust (Ha, 2004; Ruparelia, White, & Hughes, 2010) which in turn drives donor loyalty (Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2007a).

1.5. Research Method

A mixed-methods study was conducted with a two stage research design to qualitatively and quantitatively investigate the research questions; a qualitative exploratory study using interviews, followed by a two-part quantitative conclusive study using online surveys (see Figure 1.2). With the ability to triangulate results, it is argued that a study that combines both qualitative and quantitative methods is more robust and, therefore, likely to yield more accurate results for each research gap (Zikmund, Ward, Lowe, & Winzar, 2007; Neuman, 2011).

1.5.1. Target population and sampling method

Within donation behaviour literature there are essentially three main categories of voluntary donation directed to a NFP, blood, time and money, which fall under the

broader domain of 'donation behaviour'. A donation of time, commonly referred to as volunteerism, is defined as performing a voluntary, regular or episodic formal service for a charitable organisation without compensation during one or a few occasions, such as assisting with a fundraising event (Harrison, 1995; Penner, 2002; Kilpatrick, 2007). Blood donation, often referred to as a volunteer activity (Grube & Piliavin, 2000), is considered a distinct category of donation in this research; defined as an individual who voluntarily donates whole blood (ARCBS, 2012). Finally, monetary donation refers to making an active decision to give a sum of money to a NFP (thus excluding automatic direct-debit donations) without receiving a substantial benefit in return, for example using funds to buy donated goods at a charity auction is not considered donation behaviour in this study (Lyons, McGregor-Lowndes, & O'Donoghue, 2006). In consideration of the activities encompassed by the term donation behaviour, a 'donor' refers to an individual who participates in a type of donation activity. Therefore, the population of interest for this thesis is Australian donors who have donated blood, time and/or money at least once in the last 12 months.

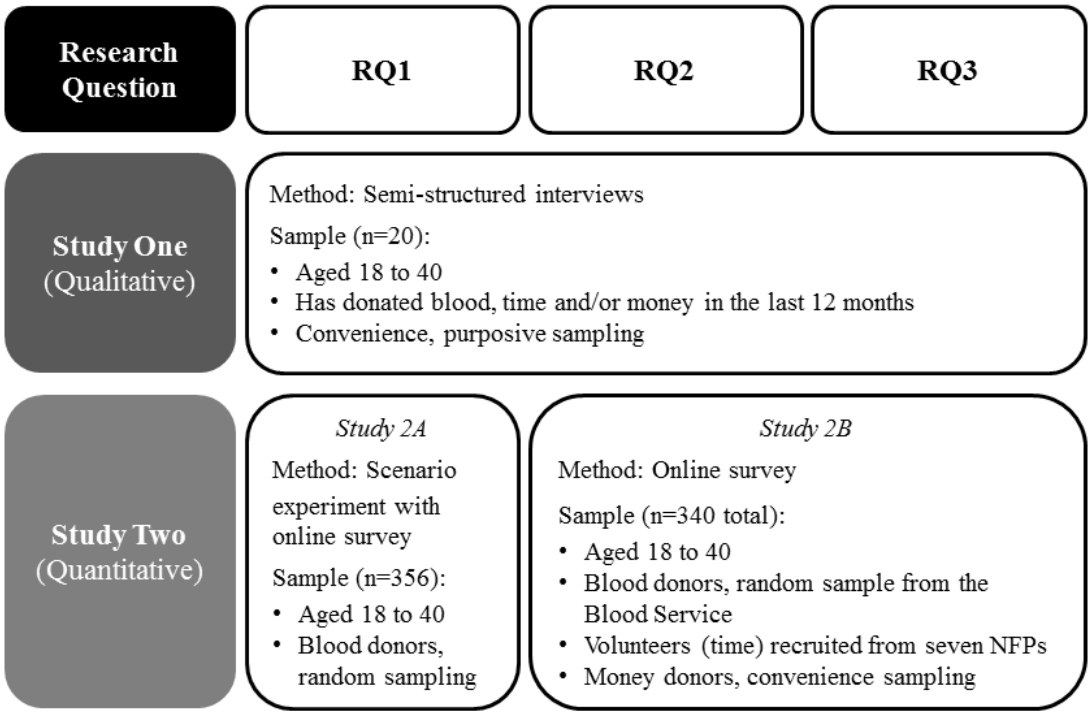
For Study One, a sample consisting of 20 Australian donors of blood, time and money was recruited using convenience sampling methods through the researcher's personal networks. For Study 2A and 2B, blood donors were recruited through the Blood Service, volunteers recruited through seven Australian NFPs, and donors of money recruited conveniently through the researcher's personal networks and a university student population at Queensland University of Technology.

1.5.2. Research design

Study One qualitatively explored the underlying processes that explain the relationships between donor appreciation, donor identity and outcomes (RQ1), identified factors that influence donors' decision to share donor recognition on SNSs (RQ2), and uncovered similarities and differences between categories of donation (RQ3). Interviews were chosen to reduce the effect of social desirability bias, which is particularly prevalent when questioning individuals about donation behaviour (Louie & Obermiller, 2000; Lee & Woodliffe, 2010; Lee & Sargeant, 2011). The interview guide was piloted with eight Australian blood donors (QUT Ethics Approval Number 1300000772). As a result of the pilot interviews, the sequencing and structure of the questions were changed.

Study Two employed a two-part quantitative research design. One online survey addressed RQ1 (Study 2A), testing the impact of different donor appreciation strategies on donor appraisal and marketing outcomes using a scenario-based experimental design with a sample of blood donors only. This sample focus on a single donation category was considered appropriate given that the qualitative Study One did not reveal any differences between categories of donation and response to receiving donor appreciation. The second online survey (Study 2B) addressed RQ2 and RQ3, quantitatively examining the determinants of sharing donor recognition on SNSs across a sample of individuals who donate blood, time and/or money.

Figure 1.2 Research Design



1.6. Contributions of the Research

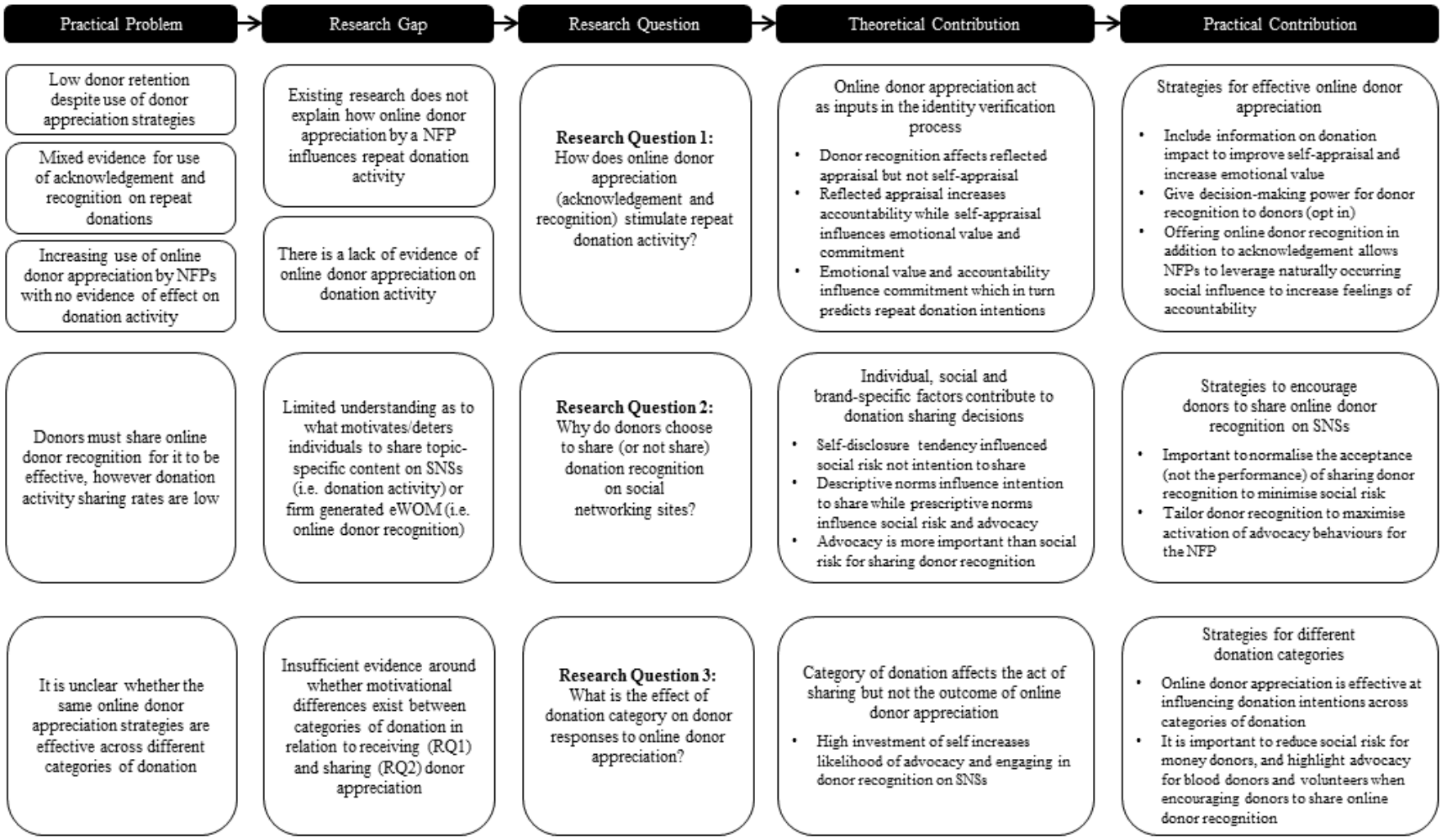
Overall, this thesis makes several theoretical and practical contributions to the donor behaviour literature by providing new insights around online donor appreciation, donor identity verification, and SNS self-disclosure (see Figure 1.3). Existing research has focused on establishing that a relationship exists between providing donor appreciation and increased donation behaviour (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998; Lacetara & Macis, 2010; Merchant et al., 2010). This research sought to contribute to a nascent body of research addressing how this relationship is formed, specifically via online

platforms. The findings of this thesis demonstrate that online donor appreciation by a NFP act as inputs in the identity verification process which inform self- and reflected appraisals. Such formalised communication can assist donors to evaluate their donation behaviour in relation to relevant identity standards and improve repeat donation intentions through increasing emotional value, accountability and commitment to the NFP.

Secondly, this research took a topic-centred approach to understanding self-disclosure in SNSs and identified individual, social and brand-specific factors that determine donation sharing decisions. Specifically, tendency for self-disclosure (individual factor), social norms and social risk (social factors), and involvement and advocacy (brand-specific factors) were identified as significant predictors of sharing donor recognition on Facebook. Lastly, the category of donation was only found to affect the act of sharing donor recognition on SNSs, not the outcome processes that result from receiving online donor appreciation.

From a managerial viewpoint, this research will inform the strategy development for effective online donor appreciation, efforts to encourage donors to share online recognition on SNSs, and how to approach different categories of donation. To the extent that online donor appreciation is less costly, this research has provided new insights for NFPs to consider using online platforms to develop effective donor acknowledgement and recognition that leverage naturally occurring social influence to motivate continued donation behaviour. Online donor recognition, as a relationship management strategy for NFPs, has been situated within the broader literature as firm-generated eWOM. The findings demonstrate that NFPs can, in fact, create eWOM strategies that drive donation, which is an important result and distinct from previous work in organic (consumer driven) eWOM. This study's practical significance lies in understanding how NFPs can leverage SNSs to encourage donors to share donation activity online, which in turn creates awareness for the NFP, aids in new donor recruitment and stimulates repeat donation activity.

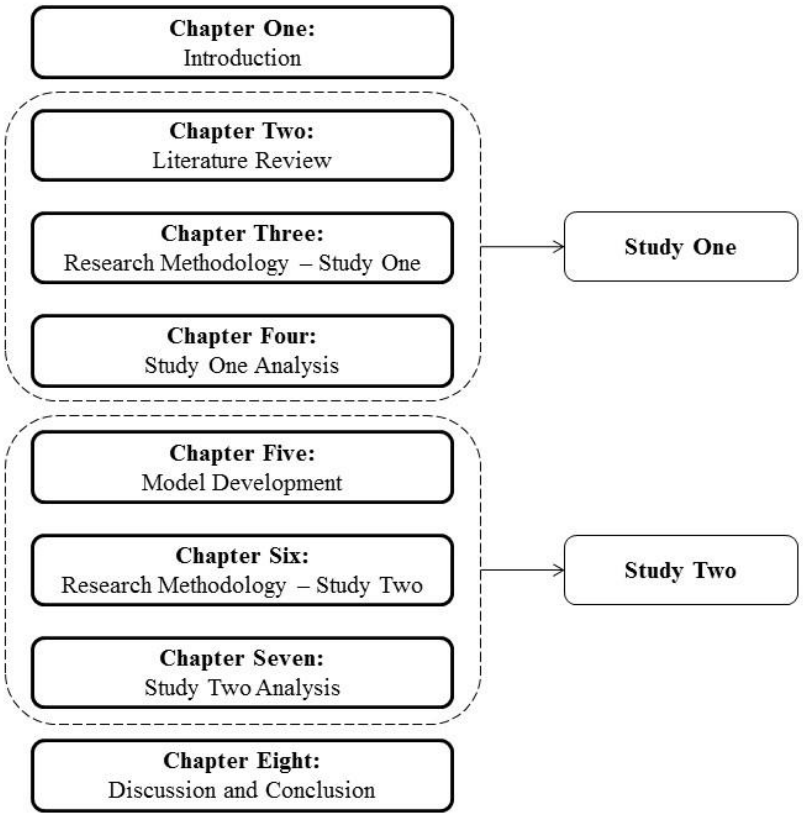
Figure 1.3 Overview of Research Gaps and Contributions



1.7. Outline of the Thesis

This thesis consists of eight chapters in total (see Figure 1.4). *Chapter Two: Literature Review* provides a review of the literature around online donor appreciation, sharing and donation behaviour to set the foundation for the research gaps and questions, and an overview of the theoretical frameworks of identity theory and self-disclosure theory used to address the first two research questions. *Chapter Three: Study One Method* provides an overview of the philosophical underpinnings of the research and an overview of the qualitative methodology used in Study One. *Chapter Four: Study One Analysis* presents the qualitative analysis and results for Study One addressing all three research questions. The conceptual models for Research Question One and Two are also presented for theoretical development in *Chapter Five: Model Development*. In order to test the hypothesised relationships, *Chapter Six: Study Two Method* provides an overview of, and justification for, the quantitative research designs used in Study 2A and 2B. *Chapter Seven: Study Two Analysis* reports the analysis and results for Study 2A followed by Study 2B. *Chapter Eight: Discussion and Conclusion* concludes the thesis by address the research questions, and draws the findings of both studies to present the theoretical contributions and practical implications of this thesis. Limitations and future research directions are also discussed.

Figure 1.4 Outline of Thesis Structure



1.8. Conclusion

Chapter One has established the importance of online donor appreciation as a relationship management strategy to reduce (not eliminate) donor attrition. The research gaps and associated research questions were justified, followed by an outline of the theoretical frameworks applied. The overall research design was explained, and the research contributions summarised. The following chapter presents a critical review of the relevant literature on donor appreciation, sharing donation activity on SNSs, identity theory and self-disclosure theory.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Over the last few decades, not-for-profit organisations (NFPs) have gradually been adopting commercial marketing practices into their activities, realising it will help to achieve their organisation's mission and donation raising goals (Polonsky & Sargeant, 2007; Dolnicar, Irvine, & Lazarevski, 2008). To address the research questions, this chapter explores literature around the relationship between donor appreciation and repeat donation activity, particularly within an online context, identifies factors that influence donation disclosure decisions in social networking sites (SNSs), and explores similarities and differences between categories of donation. The following literature review will begin with an overview of favourable marketing outcomes of donor appreciation. A review of donor appreciation literature is offered, scoping towards a focus on online donor acknowledgement and recognition, and the presentation of research question one. This is followed by a discussion around sharing on SNSs and presentation of research question two. The theoretical frameworks of identity theory and self-disclosure are then presented. Lastly, differences between the category of donation behaviour (money, time and blood) are discussed in relation to donor appreciation and sharing on SNSs, followed by the presentation of research question three.

2.2 Marketing Outcomes of Donor Appreciation

Donor attrition remains a major source of concern for NFPs across the donation of time, money and blood. To improve donor retention, the literature consistently refers to the need for effective donor appreciation strategies. In addition to evaluating attitudes towards donor appreciation in general (Glynn et al., 2006; Phillips & Phillips, 2011; Chmielewski et al., 2012), prior research have used several marketing outcomes to evaluate the effectiveness of donor acknowledgement and recognition (see Table 2.1). In particular, this thesis will examine donor value (emotional and social), commitment and intentions to donate (as a substitute for actual donation behaviour). The importance and relevance of these concepts to donor appreciation will be outlined in the subsequent sections.

Table 2.1 Marketing Outcomes of Donor Appreciation

Source	Acknowledgement (A) / Recognition (R)	Category of Donation	Marketing Outcomes							
			Donation amount	Donation Frequency	Actual donation behaviour	Intention to donate	NFP Commitment	Emotional utility/ value	Social value	Willingness to donate
Fisher and Ackerman (1998)	R	Time				✓			✓	
Harbaugh (1998)	R	Money	✓							
Merchant et al. (2010)	A	Money				✓	✓	✓		
Newman and Shen (2012)	R	Money								✓
Bingham, Quigley, and Murray (2003)	A+R	Money	✓							
Lacetara and Macis (2010)	A+R	Blood		✓						
Cotterill, John, and Richardson (2013)	R	Item (Books)			✓	✓				
Bennett (2006)	A	Money			✓					
Winterich et al. (2013)	A+R	Time & Money	✓			✓		✓		✓

2.2.1 Donor value

The importance of customer value in the marketing discipline is highlighted in the revised definition of marketing which makes reference to creating, communicating, and delivering value through exchange offerings (AMA, 2012). Holbrook (1994) goes as far to argue that because exchange is necessary to marketing activity and exchange depends on the value offered, customer value is the fundamental basis for all marketing activity; NFP and commercial organisations alike. Donors, like consumers, want value in return for their blood, time or money (Gipp, Kalafatis, & Ledden, 2008). Unlike a donor's first donation, which could be motivated by altruism or charity appeal, subsequent donations take into consideration what happened in response to the first

donation (i.e. did they receive value). Providing value to donors gives them a reason to donate again. Harbaugh (1998) proposed that the two primary reasons for donation behaviour are internal (emotional) gratification and social prestige. Similarly, Sargeant and Jay (2004a) highlight that in many cases individuals donate because they are seeking emotional or social rewards. Therefore the two dimensions of donor value of interest to this research are emotional and social value.

Emotional value centres on the idea of a 'warm glow' feeling (Andreoni, 1990; Mayo & Tinsley, 2009); a positive utility derived from the feelings or affective states that a product, or in this case a behaviour, generates or arouses (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Russell-Bennett, Previte, & Zainuddin, 2009; Ferguson, Atsma, de Kort, & Veldhuizen, 2012). Donors are more likely to repeat actions that evoke positive emotions in order to re-experience the positive feelings. For example, Merchant et al. (2010) found that monetary donors who received an acknowledgment for the donation reported significantly higher emotional utility and experienced increased positive emotions, than those who did not. Similarly, there was a significant decrease in positive emotions when no acknowledgement was offered by the charity. Individuals may also experience psychological benefits from openly demonstrating charitable behaviours in a social context (Hoffman, McCabe, & Smith, 1996; Barclay, 2004). Social value is the utility derived from the behaviour's ability to enhance social status (Sheth, Newman, & Gross, 1991; Holbrook, 2006). In a study on volunteers, Fisher and Ackerman (1998) found individuals expected more positive social approval when recognition was promised for volunteering and when the need for volunteers was perceived as high. Therefore, emotional value and social value are both potential important outcomes of online donor appreciation, and drivers of repeat donation behaviour.

2.2.2 NFP Commitment

Commitment, defined as an enduring desire or intention to maintain a valued relationship (Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2007b), is also important when evaluating donor relationships with a NFP (Sargeant & Jay, 2004a; Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005; Sargeant, Ford, & West, 2006; Waters, 2008). Conceptualised as an attitudinal (being committed), rather than behavioural (having made a commitment), construct (Becker, 1960), commitment is considered to be a relationship enhancing

state (Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2007a). Commercially, commitment has received considerable academic interest; found to drive feelings of identification with an organisation (Garbarino & Johnson, 1999), and favourable behavioural intentions (Swanson, Davis, & Zhao, 2007). Within the donation context commitment has been associated with donation frequency, that is, more frequent donors have a stronger commitment to a NFP than less frequent donors (Waters, 2008). For instance, Bennett (2006) demonstrated that individuals who enjoyed receiving acknowledgement from a NFP were more likely to intend to stay with the charity. Similarly, individuals who received acknowledgement for making a donation reported significantly higher commitment to the charity than those who did not; but only for less frequent donors (Merchant et al., 2010). Nevertheless, the way in which a NFP communicates with their donors will affect donors' level of NFP commitment (O'Neil, 2009). As commitment is an important driver of repeat donation behaviour, donor appreciation is an essential strategy to enhance NFP-donor relationships and improve donor retention.

2.2.3 Intentions to donate

According to identity theory, behaviour is often viewed as the result of pragmatic and intentional decisions, where individuals are self-controlling and intentional in their actions (Charng et al., 1988). An individual's intention to donate has become a widely used measure to understand and evaluate the complexity of donation behaviour (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998; Armitage & Conner, 2001; Verhaert & Van de Poel, 2011; Winterich et al., 2013). In particular, both acknowledgement and recognition have been found to have a positive impact on donors' future donation intentions and behaviour. Fisher and Ackerman (1998) found that being promised recognition increased the number of hours individuals intended to volunteer by elevating the importance of volunteering. For less frequent donors of money, Merchant et al. (2010) found those who received acknowledgement reported significantly higher future donation intentions than those who did not, and a decrease in donation intention when there was no acknowledgement. Within blood donation, recognition through branded gifts is often cited as a reason for donating blood (Glynn et al., 2003; Bednall & Bove, 2011). The Theory of Planned Behaviour specifies that the most proximal determinant of behaviour is an individual's intention to engage in that behaviour (Ajzen &

Fishbein, 1975, 1980; Sheppard, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1988). This is supported within the context of donation behaviour, where Basil, Ridgway, and Basil (2006) found donation intentions to positively predict actual donations. As an appropriate substitute, and direct predictor, of actual behaviour, donors' intentions to donate are important to evaluating online donor appreciation.

2.3 Donor Appreciation

Donor appreciation, as a communication strategy, falls under the reciprocity component of donor stewardship; the development of an ongoing relationship between a NFP and their donors (Greenfield, 1991; Stauch, 2011). Through donor stewardship a charity seeks to establish the means for continued communication to preserve the donors' interest in the organisation. Kelly (2000) presented donor stewardship as consisting of four key components: reciprocity, responsibility, reporting and relationship nurturing (see Table 2.2). Of importance to this research is the notion of reciprocity; which refers to the need for NFPs to demonstrate gratitude for supportive beliefs or behaviours (Kelly, 2000). Donor appreciation, a formal or informal expression of gratitude by a NFP to individuals who have undertaken a desired donation behaviour, achieves the need for reciprocity towards improving donor relationships (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998).

Table 2.2 Components of Donor Stewardship

Stewardship Component	Definition
Reciprocity	The organisation should demonstrate its gratitude for supportive beliefs and behaviours
Responsibility	The organisation acts in a socially responsible manner to those who have supported it
Reporting	A basic requirement of accountability is to keep donors informed about developments related to the NFP and how their donations are being used
Relationship Nurturing	Keeping donors at the forefront of the organisation 's consciousness, where information and involvement of donors is fundamental

Source: Kelly (2000)

2.3.1 Positive effect of donor appreciation on donation activity

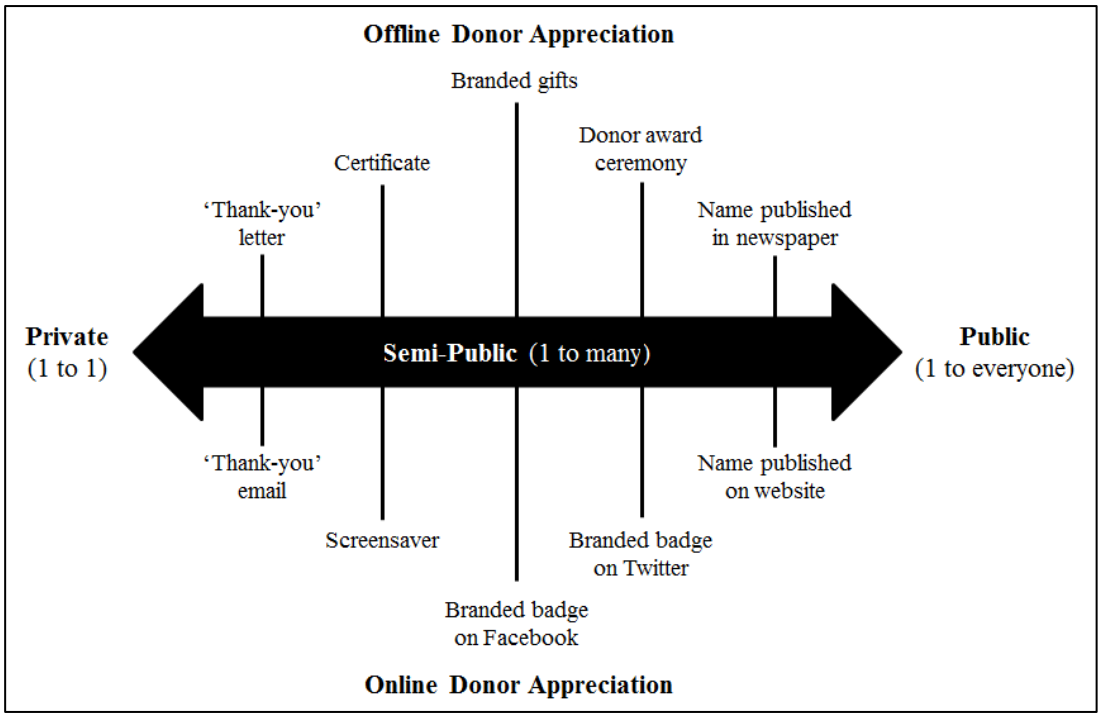
NFPs worldwide have leveraged donors' desire to be appreciated for their generosity and selflessness, developing various donor appreciation programs (Bénabou & Tirole, 2006; Bennett, 2006). Subsequently, there is empirical support for NFPs to partake in donor appreciation to encourage repeat donations of time, money and blood (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998; Lacetara & Macis, 2010; Merchant et al., 2010; Winterich et al., 2013). For instance, Bennett (2006) found a large majority of their sample (69%) valued receiving a token of appreciation (e.g. letter, telephone call, email or downloadable game/ screensaver) for making a donation of money and were more likely to continue giving to the charity than others. Similarly, Merchant et al. (2010) also found intentions to donate money to be higher among those who received a private thank-you letter than those who did not, but only among less frequent donors. A significant decrease in monetary donation intentions occurred when no thank-you letter was provided. The promise to receive a 'thank you' plaque at a graduation ceremony positively increased the number of hours donated when the need for volunteers was perceived as high (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998). However, the public component of these donor appreciation programs can vary resulting in two broad forms of donor appreciation; acknowledgement and recognition.

2.3.2 Defining private acknowledgement and public recognition

Acknowledgement is a private action directed by the NFP to the donor as an expression of gratitude for making a donation, and can take the form of a letter of thanks in the mail (Bingham et al., 2003; Merchant et al., 2010) or email (Bennett, 2006), a phone call, or a certificate (Glynn et al., 2006; Kasraian & Maghsudlu, 2012). Recognition is essentially the public form of donor acknowledgement (ADRP, 2013); an expression of gratitude by the NFP revealing the identity and generosity of donors to. Charities often give their donors considerable opportunities to be publicly recognised for donation activity. These include listing donor names in a report, newsletter or website (Bingham et al., 2003; Cotterill et al., 2013; Winterich et al., 2013), presenting donors with a pin or plaque (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998; Lacetara & Macis, 2010; Kasraian & Maghsudlu, 2012), award ceremonies (Phillips & Phillips, 2011) and branded gifts such as t-shirts, stickers, pens, etc. (Glynn et al., 2006; Chelminski & Coulter, 2007; Newman & Shen, 2012).

Although both acknowledgement and recognition strategies are considered donor appreciation, the extent that recognition is visible to others (i.e. the audience) can vary depending on the item or communication platform used (see Figure 2.1). For example, publishing a donor's name in the newspaper or on a NFP's website could be potentially seen by everyone, whereas a donor award ceremony or post to Twitter would only be seen by those within the donor community. Branded gifts or badge shared to Facebook would only be seen by individuals known to the donor (e.g. friends, family, and colleagues). Certificates and downloadable screensavers could potentially be displayed at home or work and therefore viewed by only a few others, whereas a 'thank-you' letter or email is often very private with only the donor as the audience. Whilst there have been a few studies that have examined donor appreciation strategies, there is limited agreement and understanding within the donor appreciation literature on the use of private acknowledgement over public recognition and vice-versa. For example, Low et al. (2007) found 50% of volunteers thought receiving some form of donor appreciation was important and the other half did not, with mixed preference for the type of appreciation received. Individuals seem to respond differently to acknowledgment and recognition, but there is limited understanding as to why.

Figure 2.1 Private to Public Forms of Donor Appreciation



2.3.3 Donor preferences for acknowledgement and recognition

Just as donors have their own personal set of motivations for donating, each donor will also value various forms of acknowledgement and recognition differently (Phillips & Phillips, 2011). To signify and support a donor's competence to donate, Chmielewski et al. (2012) found an overwhelming preference for acknowledgement over recognition in blood donors, as public recognition was seen as a way to control donors' behaviour. However, blood donors who responded positively to branded tokens (recognition) considered the public benefit of these tokens in raising the profile of the Blood Service (Chmielewski et al., 2012). Receiving acknowledgement in the form of a 'thank-you' note from a NFP was also the most popular form of appreciation to volunteers, and is also the most widely received (Low et al., 2007). Similarly, Foth et al. (2013) identified a group of blood donors, labelled 'The Silent Type', who preferred to be discrete and not discuss their donations openly to avoid the perception of big noting; however recognising significant milestones (e.g. 100th donation) was an exception. Davis (2012) reported that 41% of young donors indicated that they did not have a need for any acknowledgement or recognition. Of those who did, the preference was for private acknowledgement in the form of a printed or emailed thank you letter.

Alternatively, research also ascertains that some individuals want to donate conspicuously and be recognised by others for making a donation (Grace & Griffin, 2006; Euromonitor International, 2010a; Lacetara & Macis, 2010), such as through the overt display of branded gifts (Grace & Griffin, 2009). Within donations of money, Bennett (2007) reported that individuals who are highly conscious of the social significance of giving to charity tended to increase their donation in order to receive a branded gift. Yuan, Hoffman, Lu, Goldfinger, and Ziman (2011) also found 70% blood donors positively rated receiving branded gifts. Alternatively, Newman and Shen (2012) found the offer of a thank-you gift (e.g. branded pen, tote bag) actually reduced the amount of money donated, and this pattern was observed regardless of the desirability and value of the gift, or familiarity of the charity. Further, Andreoni and Petrie (2004) demonstrated that anonymous donations are rare as donors prefer to have their donation made public (e.g. publicising donor contributions during telethon appeals). Blood donors have been found to increase donation frequency prior to reaching thresholds for which a reward is offered, only if the recognition was public

(Lacetara & Macis, 2010). Similarly, when individuals were asked to pledge a book donation and offered local recognition (i.e. published list of donors), Cotterill et al. (2013) found people were more likely to make a book donation than those who received a pledge request only. Compared to using a single strategy on its own, combining acknowledgement and recognition of alumni donations served to increase the size of future contributions (Bingham et al., 2003).

What influences individuals' preference for acknowledgement and recognition, and whether the preference is dispositional (stable over time) or situational (depends on the context), remains unclear. Existing literature does suggest that preference for acknowledgement or recognition is associated with age, motivational factors and donor career. Research has demonstrated that younger donors (<28 years old) value recognition more (Yuan et al., 2011), and are more likely to donate if offered branded gifts or a token of appreciation (Glynn et al., 2003) than older donors. From a motivational perspective, Lei, Nagpal, Neville, Bove, and Chmielewski-Raimondo (2011) identified a series of blood donor segments that differed on reward expectations. Individuals that align with the 'gift-giver' expect some kind of reward in return as blood donation is viewed to primarily benefit others. Donors who fall into the 'sacrificer' segment reflect a greater altruistic disposition as this group does not expect or want anything in return, whilst those with an 'extraordinaire identity' desire recognition for their ability to donate blood, even more so when significant milestones are reached (Lei et al., 2011).

In a study on volunteer motivations and appreciation, Phillips and Phillips (2011) identified which combination of motivational preferences from the Volunteers Function Inventory (social, career, understanding, values, protective and enhancement) predicted the desire for particular rewards. Donor appreciation type awards (e.g. receiving a thank-you note, volunteer of the month/year award, certificate, and newsletter publicity) were all significantly associated with career and enhancement motivations. Motivation to donate is said to shift from external to internal sources as the donor career develops (Masser, White, Hyde, & Terry, 2008; Dagger & O'Brien, 2010). For example, starting a career as a blood donor is predominantly driven by external stimuli, with internal motivations becoming a more significant driver as the donor career develops (Ringwald, Zimmermann, & Eckstein, 2010). Thus,

receiving online donor appreciation, as an external source of motivation, may be more important to new donors than experienced donors. The success of donor appreciation strategies on increasing donation behaviour has been found to be impacted by donor career stage (Bennett, 2007). For instance, Merchant et al. (2010) found donors' intentions to donate money to be significantly higher for those who received a 'letter of thanks' compared to those who did not, but only among less frequent donors (less than five previous donations). This is also supported within customer relationship management literature where benefits associated with being in a relationship with an organisation internalise as the relationship grows (Czepiel, 1990; Verhoef, Franses, & Hoekstra, 2002; Dagger & O'Brien, 2010).

2.4 Online Donor Acknowledgement and Recognition

Donor acknowledgment and recognition has predominantly been researched within offline means of communication (see Table 2.3), such as thank-you letters, branded gifts and award ceremonies. Only two out of 17 studies examined online forms of donor appreciation; 'thank-you email' and downloadable game/ screensaver (Bennett, 2006), and publishing donor names on a website (Winterich et al., 2013). Although the effect of online donor acknowledgement (e.g. thank-you email) is not expected to be different to offline acknowledgement (e.g. thank-you letter), results of offline donor recognition research are not directly transferable to an online context. This is because the offline environment does not take into account the new level of connectedness and interaction experienced by individuals that online channels provide (Steffes & Burgee, 2009; Blazevic et al., 2013), resulting in new opportunities for self-expression, impression management and receiving feedback from socially significant others (DeAndrea & Walther, 2011).

With the proliferation of online communication platforms, particularly social media (Euromonitor International, 2010b; Hoffman & Novak, 2012), and increasing opportunities for NFPs to affordably leverage this technology (Polonsky & Sargeant, 2007), this research examines online forms of donor appreciation. Specifically, the research will examine private acknowledgement through email and public recognition via SNSs. An online focus for this research was deemed necessary from the perspective of both the NFP (improved cost effectiveness, current use lacks evaluation and

understanding) and the donor (increased opportunity for donor self-presentation and receiving social validation from important social groups).

Table 2.3 Offline and Online Donor Appreciation Research

Platform	Donation	Source	Acknowledgement	Recognition
Offline	Time	Fisher and Ackerman (1998)		✓
Offline	Time	Phillips and Phillips (2011)	✓	✓
Offline	Money	Harbaugh (1998)		✓
Offline	Money	Merchant et al. (2010)	✓	
Offline	Money	Newman and Shen (2012)		✓
Offline	Money	Bingham et al. (2003)	✓	✓
Offline	Blood	Lacetara and Macis (2010)	✓	✓
Offline	Blood	Glynn et al. (2003)	✓	✓
Offline	Blood	Glynn et al. (2006)	✓	✓
Offline	Blood	Chmielewski et al. (2012)	✓	✓
Offline	Blood	Kasraian and Maghsudlu (2012)	✓	✓
Offline	Blood	Reich et al. (2006)		✓
Offline	Blood	Sanchez et al. (2001)		✓
Offline	Blood	Yuan et al. (2011)	✓	✓
Offline	Item (Book)	Cotterill et al. (2013)		✓
Offline & Online	Money	Bennett (2006)	✓	
Offline & Online	Time & Money	Winterich et al. (2013)	✓	✓

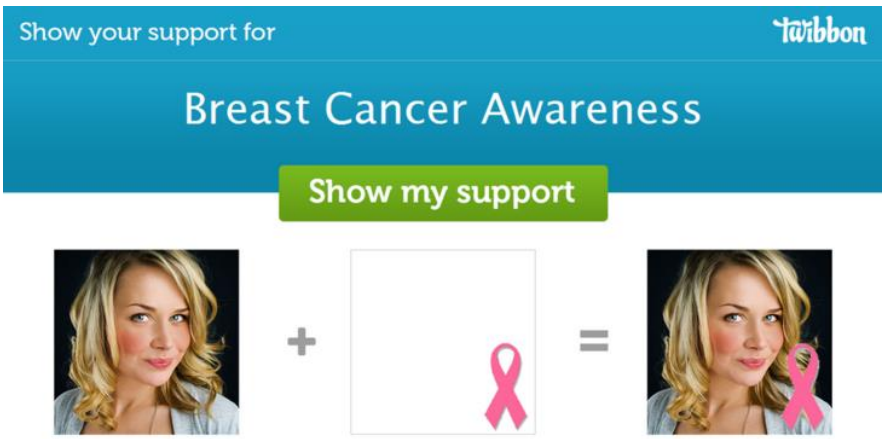
2.4.1 Importance of online donor appreciation from the NFP perspective

Online platforms create the perception of close interaction, and are beneficial to strengthen relationships with donors cost-efficiently (Sisco & McCorkindale, 2013). In response to the rapidly expanding not-for-profit sector, and rising adoption and

popularity of online communication platforms, NFPs are increasingly utilising online channels for donor acknowledgment and recognition (Davis, 2012). Email technology, the most immediate mode of written communication, allows NFPs to cost-effectively communicate with large groups of donors whilst maintaining personalised, individual contact (Olsen, Keevers, Paul, & Covington, 2001). Consequently, the practice of acknowledging and thanking donors through email is growing.

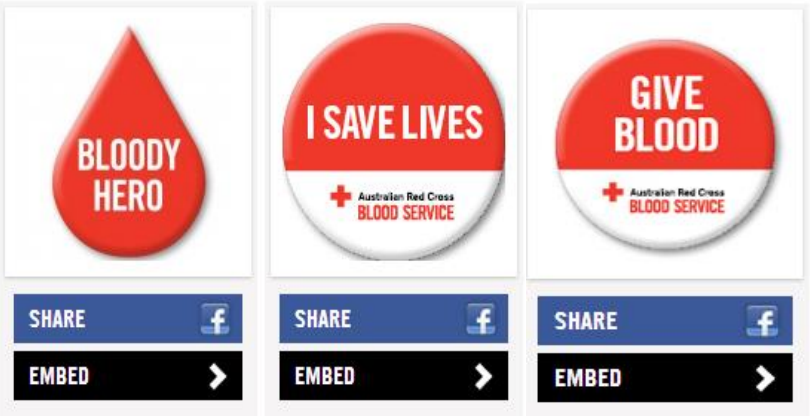
NFPs are at an emergent stage of using SNSs to recognise donors for their contribution. Despite this, very little empirical research exists to strategically guide the use of online donor recognition strategies. There is also limited evidence from NFPs around evaluation and return-on-investment of these strategies. There are predominantly three online recognition strategies currently used by NFPs; (1) listing donor names online, for instance Honour Rolls are becoming a common feature of personal fundraising pages (Everyday Hero, 2013), (2) profile image customisation applications and (3) badge or token sharing. The most common forms of 'profile image customisation' is the use of twibbons and overlays, which have a similar function to empathy ribbons and wristbands as they enable supporters of a cause or charity to modify their social media profile image with a virtual badge or overlay (see Figure 2.2). Since their development in 2009, the twibbon application has been used to promote various charities, brands and causes (Guildford, 2010). Similarly, Facebook users were asked to turn their profile image pink (i.e. overlay) to honour Breast Cancer Awareness Month (Liebowitz, 2011) and more recently asked to 'wig out' their profile image to show support for breast cancer awareness (National Breast Cancer Foundation, 2013).

Figure 2.2 Example of a Twibbon



Badge or token sharing on social media is also a growing online donor recognition strategy. The Blood Service (ARCBS, 2012) and American Red Cross (2016) have created a set of 'badges' that blood donors can choose to share or embed on social media pages that highlight their blood donor status (see Figure 2.3). The World Wildlife Fund developed a purely online interactive fundraising program that recognized donor contributions to various campaigns and offered tokens to share on social media sites for continued support (Sargeant & Jay, 2004a). Be The Match, a leading organisation in bone marrow transplantation have also developed a series of images that can be shared to Facebook, Twitter and Pinterest to demonstrate support for or participation in the cause (see Figure 2.4). The webpage alone that hosts the images has been shared almost 1000 times by users (data is not available on actual image share rates).

Figure 2.3 Blood Service Social Media Badges



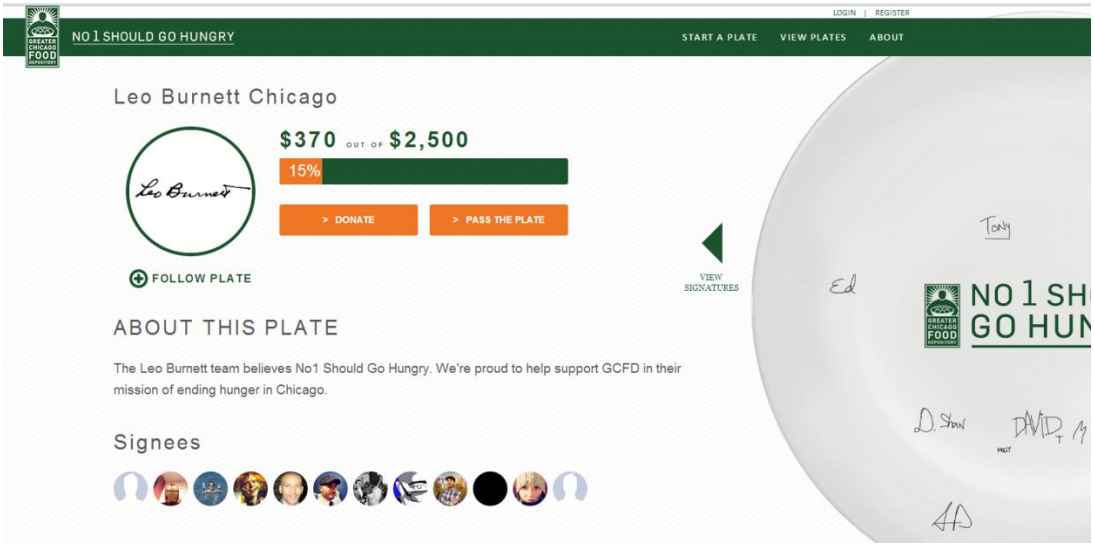
Source: ARCBS (2012)

Figure 2.4 Be the Match Facebook Cover Image

Source: Be the Match (2016)

In terms of monetary donation, young people are also becoming more charitable online than offline because they can share their fundraising efforts with their peers (Brown, 2013). It is therefore important for NFPs to facilitate this behaviour. The Donation Plate encourages donors to share their own donor status among their social networks, with each plate identifying individual donors (see Figure 2.5). Evidence to support online recognition through badge sharing is also provided within commercial marketing literature, where virtual badges can serve as a function to mark authority, expertise, experience and identity. Examples include gaming situations (Halavais, 2012) and location-based mobile SNSs, such as Foursquare (Humphrey & Laverie, 2011).

Figure 2.5 The Donation Plate Campaign



Source: Greater Chicago Food Depository (2013)

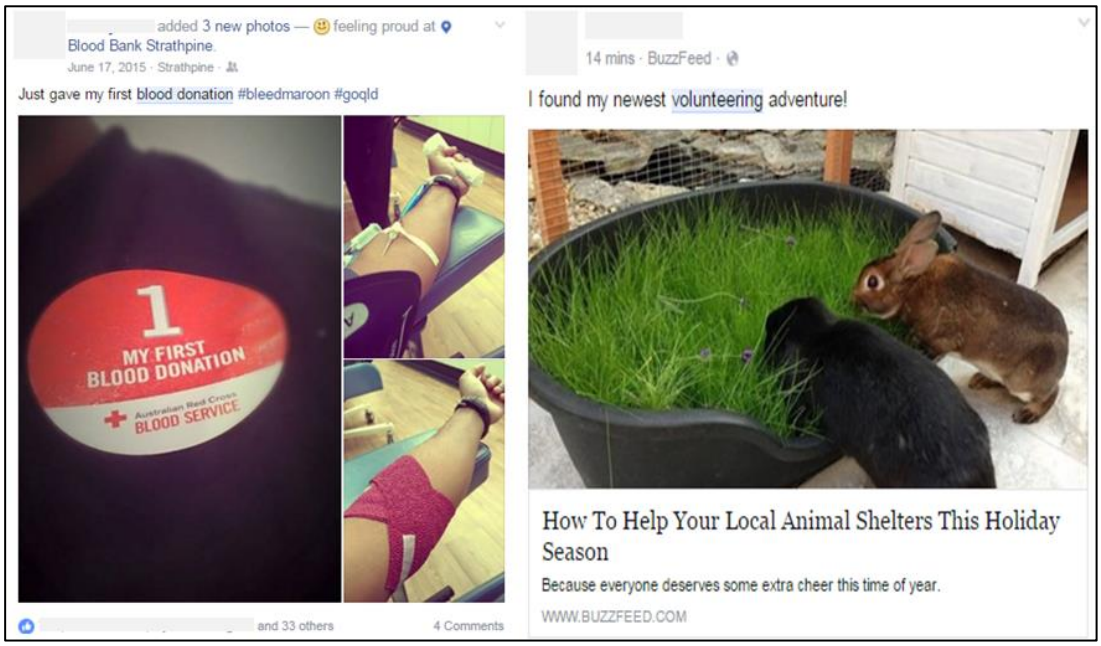
2.4.2 Importance of online donor appreciation from the donor perspective

When an individual likes or follows a NFP's social media account, this is an example of a person self-identifying as a supporter of the cause (Wallace, Buil, & de Chernatony, 2012). From a donor perspective, online donor recognition allows increased opportunity for self-presentation and impression management of a donor identity on SNSs. Self-presentation, or self-expression, is often consumption orientated dependent on individuals displaying signs, symbols, brands and practices to communicate the desired impression (Schau & Gilly, 2003). The immediacy,

interactivity and availability of online platforms, particularly social media, provide individuals new opportunities for conspicuous self-expressive behaviour through digital association rather than relying on physical ownership (Lefebvre, 2007; Croft, 2013; Wang & Stefanone, 2013).

The content of such self-presentation relates to the propensity for self-disclosure, that is, the conscious or unconscious revelation of personal information to others (Collins & Miller, 1994; Schau & Gilly, 2003). Applied to social media, this relates to the degree to which individuals post information about themselves online. Through an ethnographic study on social media use, Croft (2013) witnessed individuals partaking in virtual conspicuous consumption, where experiences are shared with one's network for its semiotic potential, in an attempt to gain audience reaction and approval. Individuals are also undertaking self-presentation activities by promoting donations on SNSs (see for example Figure 2.6). Furthermore, while tangible branded gifts can also be used for self-presentation, research has shown that some donors are concerned with the cost implications to NFPs associated with offline forms of donor recognition (Bennett, 2007; Chmielewski et al., 2012). Therefore, online donor recognition through SNSs may be more appealing to donors, as online strategies present an opportunity for significant cost savings (Hart et al., 2007).

Figure 2.6 Examples of Sharing Donation Activity on Facebook



2.4.3 Focus on social networking sites for donor recognition

There is considerable diversity across the types of social media platforms (Smith, Fischer, & Yongjian, 2012a). Kaplan and Haenlein (2009) distinguished six different types of social media (see Figure 2.7) using two key elements from the fields of media research (social presence and media richness) and social processes (self-presentation and self-disclosure). Characteristics of social presence and media richness relate to the level of communication (acoustic, visual or physical contact) that can be achieved and the degree of information richness the communication can transmit. While the criteria of self-presentation and self-disclosure relate to the platform's ability to allow individuals to project a favourable self-image that is consistent with their personal identity.

Figure 2.7 Classification of Social Media Platforms

		Social presence/ Media richness		
		Low	***Medium***	***High***
Self-presentation/ Self-disclosure	***High***	Blogs	Social networking sites (e.g. Facebook)	Virtual social worlds (e.g. Second life)
	Low	Collaborative projects (e.g. Wikipedia)	Content communities (e.g. YouTube)	Virtual game worlds (e.g. World of Warcraft)

Source: Kaplan and Haenlein (2009)

With respect to social media as a means for donor recognition, SNSs (e.g. Facebook) provide higher self-presentation and self-disclosure opportunities than content communities (e.g. YouTube), whilst maintaining the ability to share rich media formats. Further, SNSs are more widely accepted than virtual social worlds (Bernhardt, Mays, & Hall, 2012), with Facebook dominating the social media space; reportedly capturing 97% of social networking users and 60% of internet users in Australia (Sensis, 2011).

Depending on the platform used, online donor recognition strategies vary in terms of the audience size and extent of familiarity to the donor. For example, publishing a donor's name on the NFP organisation's website may only be seen by others within the donor community, a token on a personal blog may be seen by others known and

unknown to the individual, whilst friends and family are generally the audience of posts to Facebook. This is important as research has demonstrated that social approval incentives affect individuals' behaviour more when the audience is known by the individual (Gächter & Fehr, 1999). A known audience is more closely reflected by an individual's network on Facebook than other SNSs such as Twitter where followers are less closely monitored. Informal reference groups (e.g. friends) often exert a more powerful influence on individuals' behaviour because they tend to have a greater role in an individual's day-to-day life, thus their opinions are more highly valued (Solomon, Russell-Bennett, & Previte, 2013). Facebook also has a higher social presence, where the higher the social presence the larger the social influence that the communication partners have on each other's behaviour (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2009). Consequently, SNSs, specifically Facebook, provide a naturalistic and socially significant context in which to study the impact of donor recognition on donation behaviour.

2.4.4 Presentation of research question one

Despite a lack of understanding of how donor appreciation increases donation behaviour, NFPs are beginning to offer acknowledgement and recognition through online platforms to motivate donor action (ARCBS, 2012; Davis, 2012). Existing research on donor appreciation has focused on demonstrating that when a NFP provides donor appreciation this increases repeat donation activity (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998; Lacetara & Macis, 2010). With a few exceptions (Merchant et al., 2010), there has been limited exploration addressing how this relationship is formed, despite evidence that some donors prefer one form of donor appreciation over another (Chmielewski et al., 2012; Winterich et al., 2013). Further, donor appreciation research has predominantly used offline means of communication for donor appreciation, but this does not take into account the growing use of online by NFPs, the intangible nature of online donor appreciation, and increased opportunity for self-presentation and feedback of donation behaviour. Therefore, this research sought to investigate:

> *How does online donor acknowledgement and recognition stimulate repeat donation activity?*

2.5 Sharing on Social Media

Knowing how online recognition influences repeat donation behaviour is redundant if donors don't participate in the process by sharing the recognition to SNSs. On Facebook, communication and information exchange through self-disclosure is referred to as 'sharing' or 'posting'. Sharing involves "*the act and process of distributing what is ours to others for their use, and/or the act and process of receiving or taking something from others for our use*" (Belk, 2007, p.126). In a broader sense, the internet is built on shared content that can be accessed by anyone. Belk (2014) differentiates two forms of internet facilitated sharing; compensated and uncompensated. Compensated sharing, or 'collaborative consumption' occurs when individuals coordinate the consumption of a resource for a fee of other compensation (e.g. downloading films, AirBnB, shared wi-fi). Individuals who partake in uncompensated sharing do not receive any compensation in return; such as sharing video content to YouTube, and photo-sharing sites like Flickr and Facebook. Donors who share donor recognition to Facebook do not receive compensation from others users who view the content; and is therefore considered a form of uncompensated sharing.

2.5.1 Types of content shared on social media

Within computer-mediated communication literature, many attempts have been made to classify content shared to social media platforms. Baek, Holton, Harp, and Yaschur (2011) identified four categories of content topics posted to social media; news, entertainment (e.g. videos, photos, music), job-related, and organisation (e.g. association related content including charity groups, clubs, fundraisers). More recently, Ramaswami, Murugathasan, Narayanasamy, and Khoo (2014) identified nine possible content topics of posts made by SNS users, including entertainment, shopping, food and work. However, a more common approach made by researchers is to delineate types of information revealed through self-disclosure on SNSs (regardless of topic), finding that content disclosed can vary in intimacy and topic depending on the user (Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010; Nosko et al., 2010; Emanuel et al., 2014).

Classifications most often make distinctions between personally identifiable information (objective information e.g. gender, birth day, employer, pictures) and attribute or interest based information (subjective information e.g. likes and dislikes, hobbies, social activities). Osatuyi (2013) further distinguishes such subjective information as consisting of personal (sensitive) information (e.g. health conditions, relationship status), sensational information (e.g. news, celebrity gossip), political information (e.g. government-related news), and casual information (e.g. restaurant recommendations, good vacation spots). Such classifications are reflective of how users can engage in self-presentation on SNSs; either including objective information on the profile or self-disclosing subjective information through the status update function (e.g. wall post on Facebook). Using these classifications, donation activity would be classified as subjective information, either personal or casual.

2.5.2 Factors that could influence donors sharing online recognition

Unlike private acknowledgement which doesn't require any action from donors, it is necessary to understand why donors would (or would not) share donor recognition online. SNSs have become an important medium to share personal thoughts, activities, accomplishments and pictures from one's own personal life (Wilcox & Stephen, 2013). From a motivational perspective, researchers have found people share and engage with content shared to SNSs in general for a number of reasons (see Table 2.4); including to fulfil self-presentational needs, entertainment, build social connections, to source or provide information and escapism. For instance, Nadkarni and Hofmann (2012) proposed Facebook sharing was motivated by two primary needs; to belong (i.e. social connection) and for self-presentation. Rosenbaum et al. (2013) also found soliciting recognition from peers to be a minor goal of posting status updates on Facebook. The personality trait of extroversion has also been widely discussed in relation to the propensity to share information (Seidman, 2012; Wang & Stefanone, 2013), whereby extroverts tend to communicate more about themselves than introverts (Peter, Valkenburg, & Schouten, 2005).

Table 2.4 Review of Motivations for Sharing Content Online

Source	Conceptual (C) / Empirical (E)	Platform Context	Motivations						
			Self-presentation/ self-expression	Entertainment	Social Connection	Information/ surveillance	Community Development/	Escapism	Pass time
Sun and Wu (2012)	E	Facebook	✓		✓				
Nadkarni and Hofmann (2012)	C	Facebook	✓		✓				
Heinonen (2011)	C	Social Media		✓	✓	✓			
Stafford, Stafford, and Schkade (2004)	E	Internet		✓	✓	✓			
Shao (2009)	C	Social Media	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
Courtois, Mechant, de Marez, and Verleye (2009)	E	Social Media	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	
Park, Kee, and Valenzuela (2009)	E	Facebook	✓	✓	✓	✓			
Bonds-Raacke and Raacke (2010)	E	Facebook			✓	✓			
Leung (2003)	E	Internet	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	
Lin (2002)	E	Internet		✓		✓		✓	
Lee and Ma (2012)	E	Social Media	✓	✓	✓	✓			
Munar and Jacobsen (2014)	E	Social Media			✓		✓		
Baek et al. (2011)	E	Social Media		✓	✓	✓			✓
Smock, Ellison, Lampe, and Wohn (2011)	E	Facebook		✓	✓	✓		✓	✓

Impression management theory posits that, in general, people are motivated to make a favourable impression on others and adjust their behaviour to convey their desired image (Goffman, 1959; Leary & Kowalsky, 1990; Wang & Stefanone, 2013). This is often achieved through symbolic consumption, whereby individuals' consumption

patterns are used to construct, assert and validate their identities (Wymer, 2002; Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Harmon-Kizer, Kumar, Ortinau, & Stock, 2013). Several authors claim self-expression and identity formation as key outcomes of social media use (Krishnamurthy & Dou, 2008; Shao, 2009; Bolton et al., 2013). For those who desire to be perceived or defined as altruistic or socially responsible, donating to a NFP and being recognised publicly for that donation may be a means for expressing and reinforcing such an identity. However, all of the papers listed in Table 2.4 look at what predicts sharing behaviour and engagement on SNSs in general. It remains unknown what specific factors are important when deciding whether or not to share donation recognition on SNSs.

2.5.3 Presentation of research question two

Social media provides individuals with easily accessible platforms for sharing consumption experiences with others (Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh, & Gremler, 2004; Verhagen, Nauta, & Feldberg, 2013). With the exception of Van Gool et al. (2015) and Oleldorf-Hirsch and Sundar (2015), existing research has focused on delineating types of information (i.e. personally identifiable or interest based information) revealed through SNS disclosure (Nosko et al., 2010; Emanuel et al., 2014), and predictors of sharing behaviour in general, that is, factors that influence SNS usage, number of posts and frequency of posts. Such an aggregated approach to understanding sharing on SNSs has been helpful in studying overall SNS activity, but limits our understanding around what motivates individuals to post about specific topics, in particular brand related content such as an act of donation to a NFP.

Existing models of general sharing behaviour are not sufficient for investigating drivers of specific content sharing, particularly donation activity. For instance, prior research has found the need for self-presentation, entertainment and to build social connections as motivations for SNS sharing activity (Nadkarni & Hofmann, 2012); but does not provide insight on the content topics used to achieve these needs. Research investigating engagement with a brand Facebook page often identify brand-specific predictors that are not accounted for by general sharing behaviour models, such as brand experience (Chen et al., 2014), information seeking about products and brands, and users' integration into a Facebook brand page community (Shao & Ross, 2015). Further, unlike commercial organisations participating in

firm-generated eWOM through social networking games (Hansen & Lee, 2013), sharing donor recognition cannot be incentivised. Therefore, this study takes a topic-centred approach to donors' self-disclosure on SNSs, investigating motivations for sharing and promoting donation activity, specifically donor recognition, on Facebook. Therefore, the secondary aim of this research was to investigate:

> *Why do donors choose to share (or not share) donation recognition on social networking sites?*

2.6 Theoretical Framework One: Identity Theory

Identity theory, developed through the work of McCall and Simmons (1966), Turner (1978), Burke (1980) and Stryker (1980), is used to address research question one; to understand the role of donor appreciation strategies in donor identity development and repeat donation behaviour. When individuals choose to donate money, volunteer or donate blood, this communicates something about the individual. Traits, consumption patterns, social relations and behaviour are central to self-definition around which identities are created (Reed et al., 2007; Oyserman, Elmore, & Smith, 2012). Identity theory is derived from the theoretical perspective of symbolic interactionism, of which social interaction and symbolic communication are key elements (Aksan, Kisac, Aydin, & Demirbuken, 2009). The basic premise of identity theory is that one's self-concept is organised into a series of identities (e.g. father, healthy-eater, or volunteer), where an individual can assume multiple identities simultaneously (Stryker & Burke, 2000). These identities correspond to individual values and attributes (i.e. personal identities; Hitlin, 2003), as well as the roles an individual plays in society (i.e. role identities; Stryker & Burke, 2000).

A personal identity is trans-situational and differentiates the person from others; emphasising a sense of individual autonomy (e.g. I love animals, I'm a good person; Hitlin, 2003). Role identities are adopted by the individual as a consequence of the structural role positions they occupy (e.g. volunteer, father). Both personal and role identities hold a set of expectations that serve as a standard of reference for identity-appropriate behaviour (Charng et al., 1988; Burke, 1991; Thoits, 2012). Prolonged engagement in a particular activity encourages its internalisation and adoption as a component of one's identity (Stryker, 1980; Terry et al., 1999; Piliavin,

Grube, & Callero, 2002). In other words, an identity develops as a function of behaviour which then promotes further performance of that behaviour. For instance, continued donations of blood lead to the development of a blood donor identity that drives the giving of future blood donations.

2.6.1 Identity and donation

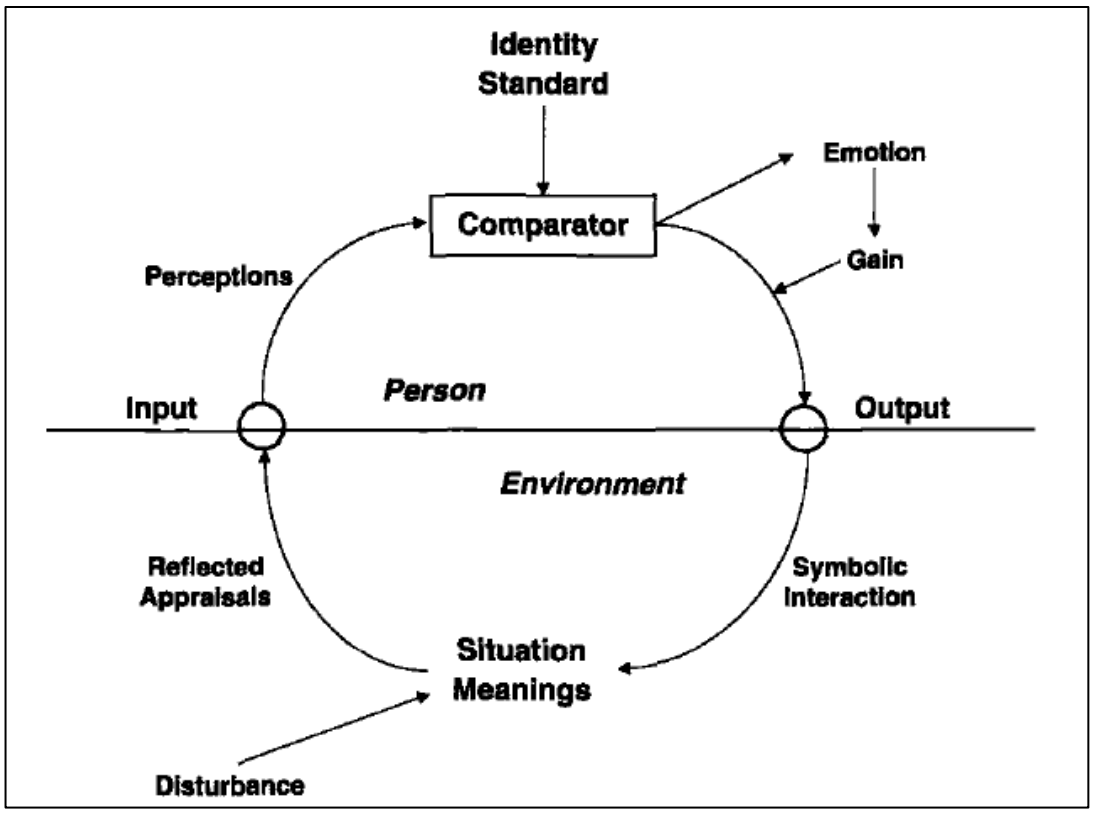
Identity theory has been used to understand a wide range of social actions, including participation in exercise (Anderson, Cychosz, & Franke, 1998; Vlachopoulos, Kaperoni, & Moustaka, 2011), recycling (Terry et al., 1999; Collier & Callero, 2005) and purchasing organic produce (Dean, Raats, & Shepherd, 2012). Once an initial donation is made, individuals consciously or unconsciously adopt the identity of being a 'donor' or supporter of the NFP. As such, there is evidence that identity processes are also important in motivating and sustaining donation behaviour (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Masser et al., 2008; Sargeant & Shang, 2012).

Prior research has shown that the strength of an individual's role-identity and past donation behaviour to be the strongest predictors of intentions to donate time, money and blood (Lee et al., 1999; Grube & Piliavin, 2000). Modelling by parents, perceived expectations of others, feelings of personal obligation and past donation behaviour were also found by Lee et al. (1999) to positively impact donor identity across all three donation domains. Winterich et al. (2013) examined how the effectiveness of recognition on the donation of time and money is dependent on the joint influence of two distinct dimensions of moral identity: internalisation (whether moral traits are central to the self) and symbolisation (degree to which moral traits are expressed through action). The research demonstrated that recognition is effective only when an individual's symbolisation dimension of moral identity is prominent and internalisation is low. Whilst, Grube and Piliavin (2000) found perceived expectations of others to be the strongest predictor of a blood donor's identity. Similarly, Finkelstein, Penner, and Brannick (2005) attribute the likelihood of continuation in volunteer activity to the degree the role-identity is internalised and the strength of others' expectations to continue in a manner consistent with that role. Personal (e.g. moral identity) and role (e.g. volunteer) identities will be explored in relation to receiving donor appreciation in study one.

2.6.2 Identity verification

When an identity is activated, a set of expectations and meanings serve as a standard for appropriate behaviour. To ensure congruency is achieved between the behaviour and identity, persons undertake identity verification from which a feedback loop is established (Burke & Stets, 2009). As depicted in Figure 2.8, Stets and Carter (2011, p.196) present a five component feedback system consisting of: *"(1) the identity standard (the meanings of an identity); (2) output (behaviour) in the situation; (3) perceptual input of meanings from the situation, including how persons think others see them (reflected appraisals); (4) a process that compares the perceptual input with the identity standard (the comparator); and (5) emotions that immediately result from the comparison process*". Of particular interest to this research is the appraisal component of identity verification which can serve to validate a donor identity.

Figure 2.8 Identity Verification Feedback Process



Source: Stets and Carter (2011)

Appraisals refer simultaneously to a person's self-appraisal and reflected appraisal. Self-appraisal is an independent personal evaluation of identity related actions

(Laverie et al., 2002). In contrast, reflected appraisals are subjective impressions based on how they perceive others to have evaluated their identity-related behaviour. Appraisal are informed by perceptual inputs which are considered to be social communication discourses which provide behavioural cues that are interpreted to yield conclusions about identity efficacy (Stets & Carter, 2011). Kleine et al. (1993) identified that identity related possessions (e.g. things you own because you're an athlete) affect appraisals. Laverie et al. (2002) extended this model and found three social communication discourses as predictors of both self- and reflected appraisals; possession commitment, social commitment (i.e. identity-related interpersonal relationships such as people you know from playing sport) and media commitments (i.e. the sum of magazines/ TV shows that you pay attention to because they are related to sport). This research extends existing literature and explores formal communication through donor acknowledgement and recognition as perceptual inputs that contribute to one's identity verification process. However, it remains unclear how such formalised feedback is interpreted in relation to self- and reflected appraisals.

Furthermore, reflected appraisals are commonly based on an ambiguous set of cues, dependent on the extent that opinions of others are communicated clearly and directly (Stets & Carter, 2011; Wallace & Tice, 2012). The basic premise of reflected appraisal is that once a role-identity is adopted, individuals will seek to verify their identity through feedback from others (Finkelstein et al., 2005; Harmon-Kizer et al., 2013). Yet within existing identity verification research, reflected appraisals based on imagined feedback has received more attention than actual feedback (social validation), particularly with regard to enhancing donation behaviour. This is because actual feedback from others is not often communicated directly to the individual, and difficult to capture in research without relying on self-reported occurrences.

2.6.3 Role of social validation in identity verification

Existing research on social validation has focused on the construct's role in group information sharing (Wittenbaum & Bowman, 2004; Mojzisch, Schulz-Hardt, Kerschreiter, Brodbeck, & Frey, 2008) and building an individual's self-esteem (Schimel, Arndt, Pyszczynski, & Greenberg, 2001). Social validation, or alternatively termed social reinforcement by authors such as Stice (1998) and Winterich et al. (2013), entails the comments and actions of others that serve to strengthen and

perpetuate a person's identity or desired image. Many theorists have argued that such social validation serves to promote the internalisation of identities by contributing to positive feelings of self-esteem (Rogers, 1959; Greenberg, Pyszczynski, & Solomon, 1986; Stice, 1998; Schimel et al., 2001). Similarly, prior research has demonstrated that positive evaluation of identity-related behaviour increases identity salience (Hoelter, 1983; Laverie & McDonald, 2007). Self-verification theory grounds the logic for social validation, as it asserts that people strive for psychological coherence between how others view them and how they view themselves (North & Swann, 2009). Such self-verification relies on social validation which, in turn, is dependent on the extent to which the behaviour provides the opportunity to verify a person's identity through the responses and views of others (Swann, 1983).

Moreover, the degree of verification influence is suggested to vary according to the 'group of others' providing the socially validating comments and actions. When a person or group has the means to provide positive reinforcement, their influence over an individual is dependent on the extent that the reinforcement is valued or desired. Social influence has been found to be more effective when a donor's behaviour is appreciated by those with whom the donor shares a strong social bond (Bekkers & Wiepking, 2007; Bekkers, 2010; Ellingsen & Johannesson, 2011). In their study on the impact of social approval on the provision of public goods, Gächter and Fehr (1999) found that social approval incentives only had a significant effect when respondents had some knowledge of each other; there was no effect when respondents were strangers. Thus, small, informal reference groups, such as a group of friends, often exert a more powerful influence on individual behaviour because those people are more important to the individual (Solomon et al., 2013).

This is particularly the case on SNSs, where Facebook communication has been shown to increase relationship strength between friends over and above communication by other channels such as email, phone or in-person conversation (Burke & Kraut, 2014). However, in order to receive feedback from socially significant others for identity-related behaviour, the action needs to be either directly observable by others or disclosed to others. Donating itself is a relatively private act, whereas sharing donor recognition is a public activity as information is communicated to an individual's social network. Self-disclosure is a necessary strategy for identity construction on

SNSs such as Facebook (Zhao et al., 2008) with the breadth and frequency of disclosure on social media shown to relate to the perceived value of the desired outcome (Jiang, Bazarova, & Hancock, 2011).

2.7 Theoretical Framework Two: Self-Disclosure Theory

The general view of self-presentation theory suggests individuals perform actions as a result of the interpersonal impressions they wish to create. Goffman (1959) describes self-presentation as an attempt to control the impressions other people form of them, with the objective to make a positive impression and create an image consistent with one's personal identity (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2009). Such self-presentation of individual identities is most often achieved through self-disclosure; a discretionary behaviour that refers to any personal information that a person communicates to others (Collins & Miller, 1994; Varnali & Toker, 2015). Self-disclosure theory will be used to address research question two to understand what influences donors' decisions to disclose donation activity on SNSs, specifically share donor recognition to Facebook.

The amount and type of information is determined by the individual; where the type of information shared can range from factual to personal details about the self. According to models explaining disclosure decision-making (Derlega & Grzelak, 1979; Omarzu, 2000), individuals assess the subjective value of self-disclosing certain content by considering reasons for and against (Derlega, Winstead, Mathews, & Braitman, 2008). Thus, individuals will tailor self-disclosures in order to portray a desired (or avoid an undesired) image or identity. Within a SNS context, both concepts are highly relevant and interrelated as SNSs revolve around the quality and amount of content shared by their users (Van Gool et al., 2015).

Explored extensively in an offline face-to-face context, self-disclosure through online platforms, particularly SNSs, is only just beginning to gain attention from researchers. It is well documented that interactions between individuals vary between online and offline environments (Nosko et al., 2010; Varnali & Toker, 2015). As in face-to-face social interactions, there is a process of self-presentation on SNSs which has been perceived as more reflexive as users have more time to carefully articulate their desired image through self-disclosures (Champagne, 2008). Although researchers have made a significant contribution towards understanding online self-disclosure in

computer-mediated communication, such research is mostly based on early modes of online communication (e.g. blogs) characterised by high anonymity resulting in increased self-disclosure (Lee, Im, & Taylor, 2008). However, when communicating on SNSs anonymity is reduced and a direct link between online self-disclosure and the offline identity of the user is encouraged. Consequently, research that focuses exclusively on SNS self-disclosure is a relatively recent development.

2.7.1 Self-disclosure on social networking sites

One of the defining characteristics of SNSs is the consumption and distribution of personal content about the self with a wide range of people (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2009). The audience of self-disclosure on SNSs is poorly defined, with individuals from different social circles, close friends to acquaintances to total strangers, all within the same network. Marwick and Boyd (2010) refer to this phenomenon as 'context collapse'. As different target values need to be addressed simultaneously, this poses a challenge for users of SNSs to balance self-presentation strategies and privacy concerns given the broad audience reach (Haferkamp & Krämer, 2011).

Regarded as a multi-dimensional behaviour, self-disclosure has been found to vary by four components; *breadth*, amount of disclosure, *depth*, intimacy of disclosure, *duration*, length of disclosure and *content*, information disclosed (Cozby, 1973; Omarzu, 2000). In relation to predictors of breadth, depth and duration of self-disclosure, prior research has taken individual differences (Ignatius & Kokkonen, 2007; Sun & Wu, 2012), personality traits such as extroversion (Correa, Hinsley, & de Zuniga, 2010; Wilson, Fornasier, & White, 2010; Wang & Stefanone, 2013), privacy concerns (Trepte & Reinecke, 2011), and motivational aspects into account (Lee et al., 2008; Waters & Ackerman, 2011). For instance, females are more likely to self-disclose personal information via SNSs than males (Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010; Davis, 2013).

2.7.2 Electronic word-of-mouth

Having revolutionised consumer-to-consumer communication, the internet allows individuals to share and exchange consumption related experiences with each other quickly and easily (Sun, Youn, Wu, & Kuntaraporn, 2006; Kim, Jang, & Adler, 2015). Electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM), a form of online self-disclosure, refers to

informal communication between individuals concerning evaluations of products and services via the internet (Anderson, 1998; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). As a consumer-dominated exchange of information online, the valence of eWOM communication can be positive or negative; implying that one either encourages or discourages consumption of a product or service. For example, a blood donor may share positive or negative comments with others about donating blood depending on their experience. If an individual discloses a recent donation to a NFP on SNSs (e.g. I donated blood today), this would be considered positive eWOM as the disclosure demonstrates a positive attitude towards donating.

Research has predominantly approached word-of-mouth (WOM) communication as an outcome function of brand experiences. Product and service related factors, such as satisfaction (or dissatisfaction), have been identified as significant drivers of WOM (de Matos & Rossi, 2008; Barreda, Bilgihan, & Kageyama, 2015). Motivation to engage in eWOM has also been shown to be a function of individual differences, such as a consumer's self-confidence (Chelminski & Coulter, 2007), level of individualism (Wien & Olsen, 2014), and social network characteristics, including tie strength and homophilly (Chu & Kim, 2011). Further motivations to engage in eWOM include the potential for positive self-enhancement, social benefits, helping the company and concern for other consumers (Dholakia, Bagozzi, & Pearo, 2004; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; Wang & Fesenmaier, 2004; Bronner & de Hoog, 2011).

Investigating drivers of eWOM within a donation context is important for three reasons; increase brand trust, encourage others to donate, and reduce risk associated with donation. Positive eWOM has been found to indirectly increase repeat donations through encouraging favourable brand trust. Within a commercial context, Ha (2004) and Ruparelia et al. (2010) found that positive eWOM communication helps consumers cultivate brand trust online. In turn, favourable brand trust in a NFP has been found to drive commitment and loyalty in the context of charitable donations (Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2007a; O'Neil, 2009). For instance, Waters (2008) found trust in the NFP was significantly higher in repeat donors than one-time donors. By improving individual's view of NFPs, positive eWOM has also been shown to encourage other members of an individual's social network to donate. A survey conducted by the American Red Cross (2014) found seventy percent of social media

users surveyed (n=1021 U.S. adults) would take some kind of action, with nineteen percent likely to donate money themselves, in response to a friend posting about a recent donation on SNSs. Although many NFP websites give donors the option to share their donation via their personal SNSs, only 40% of those surveyed stated they would definitely or be likely to share.

Lastly, eWOM can play an important role in shaping consumer decisions as it's considered more meaningful, reliable and credible than information provided by commercial sources (Murray, 1991). This is even more so within a service context given its intangible, complex and high risk nature (Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2006). Similar to commercial services, donating is difficult to evaluate prior due to the nature of inseparability between service production and consumption. Similarly, positive WOM is important for reassuring people about the reliability of a charity (Hibbert, 1995). Moreover, blood donation has many associated barriers to its performance (e.g. fear of needles). Given that positive WOM communication is shown to be effective at reducing consumers' perceived risks associated with purchases of intangible services (Kinard & Capella, 2006) and aid individuals' decision-making (Zhang, Ye, Law, & Li, 2010), encouraging others to donate is a useful outcome of donating. However, limited empirical work has considered positive WOM in response to making a donation, despite research demonstrating the importance of other people in the decision to donate money, time and blood (Sojka & Sojka, 2008).

Existing literature distinguishes between endogenous (consumer-generated, organic) and exogenous (firm-generated, amplified) WOM (Godes & Mayzlin, 2009; Libai et al., 2010). Researchers have primarily focused on the former, which is characterised by conversations occurring naturally between individuals as a function of their consumption experiences (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). In contrast, the latter refers to WOM created as the result of actions taken by a firm (Godes & Mayzlin, 2009). In relation to donation, donors sharing donation related experiences on SNSs unprompted by a NFP would be considered endogenous WOM. However, this research is focusing on donor recognition as a means for disclosing donation activity and is, as such, driven by the NFP.

2.7.3 Firm-generated eWOM

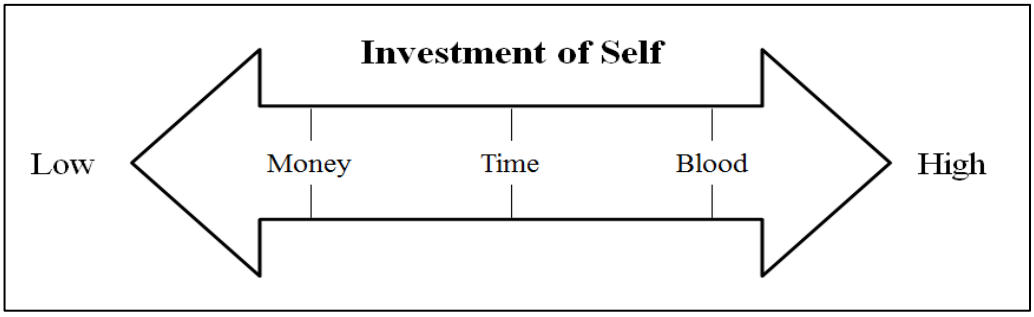
Rather than relying on satisfied customers to recommend products and services to their network, some organisations engage in exogenous eWOM strategies to engineer conversations among their customers. Godes and Mayzlin (2009) termed such action as *firm-generated (exogenous) WOM*, which can be considered a hybrid between traditional advertising and organic consumer WOM; characterised as being firm initiated but customer implemented. Firm-generated WOM has been researched extensively in relation to customer referral reward programs (Ryu & Feick, 2007). Existing research has studied the extent to which receivers accept firm-generated WOM as reliable (Carl, 2008), how an incentive system may affect the sender and receiver (Ryu & Feick, 2007) and ethical issues concerning the use of firm-generated WOM strategies (Ashley & Leonard, 2009). However, firm-generated eWOM has more recently been investigated within a social networking game (SNGs) context; a type of online game distributed primarily through SNSs, such as Farmville and Word Challenge (Shin & Shin, 2011). SNGs include built-in mechanisms that invite users to share marketer-generated messages about game activity to their social network in exchange for economic incentives of game currency or virtual goods. Hansen and Lee (2013) found both social factors (normative influence) and game factors to influence whether users share firm-generated eWOM in SNGs. However, there is a need to further understand the extent to which people are willing to share firm-generated WOM on SNSs (Libai et al., 2010), particularly in relation to online donor recognition where sharing behaviour cannot be incentivised as it can in SNGs.

In contrast to commercial organisations engaging in firm-generated eWOM, NFPs cannot offer economic incentives, and would need to rely on donor's altruistic nature to share content; motivated to raise awareness of the NFP and encourage others to donate. Since disclosing personal information and engaging in eWOM on SNSs is a voluntary behaviour, it is even more critical to understand users' motivations to do so within a donation context. To address this gap in knowledge, this study investigated factors that lead donors to engage in marketer-generated eWOM behaviours within a donation context; specifically sharing donor recognition, such as a badge on SNSs.

2.8 Category of Donation Behaviour

Formal voluntary donations of blood, time and money all fall under the broader domain of 'donation behaviour'; yet vary regarding the nature of what is given in the donation. For instance, volunteering and blood donation both involve a donor's time (Ferguson, Farrell, & Lawrence, 2008), whilst donating blood and money involve a direct material cost. Therefore, donation behaviour is argued to vary based on the donation's investment of self (see 2.9). Investment of self refers to the perceived effort and cost to the donor that is involved when making a donation. In social marketing, this is referred to as the 'price' component of the marketing mix; the monetary or non-monetary cost or sacrifice to the individual in order to perform a particular behaviour (Lee & Kotler, 2011).

Figure 2.9 Donation Behaviour and Investment of Self



2.8.1 Investment of self in donations of blood, time and money

Blood donation has the highest investment of self, due to the temporal (i.e. time involved in attending the donation session), physical (i.e. personal loss from body, potentially pain and personal discomfort) and psychological (i.e. invasive nature of the donation procedure causing anxiety and stress) costs involved in making the donation (Lee et al., 1999; Masser et al., 2008). Volunteering for a NFP represents a greater investment of self than donating money due to the time and effort required to volunteer, and is subsequently perceived as a more caring, moral and socially responsible act (Reed et al., 2007). Although donations of money can range from small to very large donations, donations of money involve the lowest investment of self, with only a financial cost to the individual.

2.8.2 Motivational differences between categories of donation

In addition to the nature of the donation, several motivational differences have been identified between the donation of blood, time and money. The seminal work of Lee et al. (1999) found that role-identity as a blood donor was more strongly affected by feelings of moral obligation than as a donor of time or money, and others' expectations more strongly affect the decision to volunteer time than to donate money or blood. Furthermore, importance of charity was found to significantly affect the decision to donate money and time, while importance of need was only found to significantly affect the donation of money (Pentecost & Andrews, 2009). Bekkers (2010) identified that the impact of social reward on charitable intentions was stronger for donations of time, involving a higher investment of self, than donations of money. It is therefore arguable that differences may exist between the category of donation (i.e. blood, time or money) regarding the receipt of donor appreciation from a NFP and subsequent influence on donation behaviour.

2.8.3 Self-disclosure differences between categories of donation

Given the nature of what is donated (i.e. investment of self) and motivational differences, it is also expected that variances exist between the categories of donation behaviour and decisional factors important in choosing to disclose an act of donation to others; in particular sharing donor recognition on SNSs. Although there has been limited research exploring self-disclosure of donation activity, there is some evidence to support this. A study by the American Red Cross (2014) found, 40% of social media users would share donation activity on SNSs (with 70% of the sample having donated money in the last 12 months). Yet, 70% of the sample would take one or more positive actions after seeing a friend post about having made a donation; including 'liking' the post (36%), actively learn more about the charity (29%) or making a donation (19%). This may be explained by individuals' general unwillingness to actively perform status-seeking behaviour (i.e. publicly disclose donation activity), and a lack of self-awareness about status-seeking behaviour (Kataria & Regner, 2015). People often underestimate, minimise or avoid status-seeking behaviour because it can be seen as a negative character trait. Therefore, while disclosing donation activity could have a positive impact (e.g. enhanced social status, encourage others to donate), this behaviour could diverge from the self-image (i.e. I don't do something to gain status)

leading to psychological discomfort and cognitive dissonance (Harmon-Jones, Harmon-Jones, & Levy, 2015).

On the other hand, sharing blood donation activity and experiences on SNSs appears to be more acceptable. Dobele et al. (2014) investigated social activity on the Blood Service Facebook page over a month and found the two wall posts that achieved the highest interaction by users were around sharing blood donation activity with others. The 'You're a giver, be a liker' post involved a video that explained the benefits of donors sharing their donation experience with others and the call to action 'Donate Like Share', which received 1578 shares, 1229 likes and 115 comments. The second post asked donors to share their blood donation stories on the Blood Service page, which received 86 shares, 1438 likes and 101 comments. This demonstrates a higher willingness to publicly share blood donation over money. Furthermore, volunteers have been characterised as more extraverted than non-volunteers (Bekkers, 2010), which could mean volunteers are also more willing to share donation activity as extraversion has been associated with higher tendencies for self-disclosure (Correa et al., 2010; Wang & Stefanone, 2013).

2.8.4 Presentation of research question three

When the investment of self or cost to perform a donation behaviour is high, so too is the importance to advocate or provide personal benefits (Weyant, 1978). Ellingsen and Johannesson (2009) found people are more generous when they have the opportunity only to give time than when given the opportunity to only give money. This is supported by behavioural decision theory research, which demonstrates that, based on an average hourly rate, giving a certain amount of time is psychologically different from donating an equivalent amount of money (Kruger, Wirtz, Van Boven, & Altermatt, 2004). Similarly, Morales (2005) demonstrates that exerting effort implies that a consumer is more concerned about the activity or cause. Further, Reed et al. (2007) identified that a donation of time was perceived by donors to be relatively more self-expressive than giving money. While Bekkers (2010) identified that the higher the social reward the more likely people were to donate money and time (this effect was stronger for donations of time). Further, it is also likely that willingness to share donation activity on SNSs will vary between donation categories (Bekkers, 2010; American Red Cross, 2014; Dobele et al., 2014). Therefore, the motivations to share

donor recognition and the impact of online donor appreciation may vary according to the investment of self that is involved in each category of donation behaviour. Therefore, the research also sought to investigate:

> *What is the effect of donation category on donor responses to online donor appreciation?*

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the relevant literature that forms the theoretical foundation of this thesis and its investigation into online donor acknowledgement and recognition. Research question one aims to understand the underlying processes that explain the relationship between providing online donor appreciation and repeat donation behaviour, and will be addressed using identity theory. Research question two aims to identify factors that contribute to donors' decision to share (or not share) donor recognition on Facebook, and will be addressed within the framework of self-disclosure as a form of firm-generated eWOM. Research question three explores whether differences exist between the donation of blood, time and money in relation to outcomes of online donor appreciation and motivations to share online donor recognition. The following chapter, Chapter Three, outlines the methodology for Study One, which involved qualitative methods to explore all three research questions presented in this chapter.

Chapter Three: Study One Method

3.1 Introduction

Following a review of the literature on online donor appreciation, identity theory, self-disclosure and donation behaviour, the present lack of knowledge was highlighted resulting in three research questions. To address these, a mixed-methods study was conducted, with a two stage research design; study one comprised of a qualitative exploratory study using interviews and study two was a quantitative confirmatory study utilising two online surveys. The aim of study one was to explore predictors, processes and outcomes of online appreciation for donors. Results were used to develop two theoretical models (to address RQ1 and RQ2) to test quantitatively in study two. Subsequently, the aim of Study Two was to empirically test the models and provide conclusive evidence for the constructs and relationships identified in study one.

This chapter begins by discussing the philosophical underpinnings of this research program (section 3.2), followed by an overview of the unit of analysis under investigation in both study one and study two (section 3.3). The next section will provide a rationale for a mixed methods research design (section 3.4) and outline the methodology employed in study one only (section 3.5). Methodology for study two will be outlined in Chapter 6.

3.2 Philosophical Approach

Research paradigms are a basic orientation to theory and research; providing a framework for what constitutes legitimate research and knowledge creation (Neuman, 2011). Each paradigm is a reflection of the underlying philosophical assumptions of the researcher and is characterised by a set of ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions that must be considered in the research design (Crotty, 1998). Central to post-positivism, the philosophical approach adopted in this research, is the assertion that research can only approximate the truth of reality as all observation is inherently theory-laden and fallible (Lincoln & Guba, 2003; Onwuegbuzie, Johnson, & Collins, 2009). Given the post-positivist orientation, the research subscribes to a critical realism ontology and modified dualist or objectivist epistemology (Lincoln,

Lynham, & Guba, 2011). This view maintains that the world has an objective existence, but only imperfectly apprehensible. Such objectivity can be approximated by triangulating methodology, data and theory (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009). To capture as much reality as possible, post-positivism favours a mixed-method research program (Creswell, 2011), with modified experimentation, falsification of hypotheses and some qualitative methods identified as appropriate methods for this philosophical approach (Heron & Reason, 1997). A two-stage research design is consequently applied, utilising both qualitative and quantitative methodologies.

3.3 Overall Research Program

Consistent with a post-positivist stance, research that combines both qualitative and quantitative methods is more rigorous and robust and, therefore, likely to yield improved and more accurate outcomes (Zikmund et al., 2007; Neuman, 2011). This is due to the complementary nature of mixed-method research that allows for a more complete understanding of the research problem to be gained (Bryman, 2008). As such, a two study sequential mixed-method research design was conducted to qualitatively and quantitatively address the research questions (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2011). A sequential design is consistent with the proposition that mixed-methods often aid in the development of a research project, where the results from one study help develop or inform the following study (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). Study One used the qualitative research technique of interviews to provide contextual understanding to the research questions, resulting in a model, with findings externally validated through quantitative research. Study Two will quantitatively address the research questions, testing constructs and relationships identified within the models. Methodology for Study Two is further discussed in Chapter 6.

3.4 Research Design of Study One

Study One aimed to qualitatively understand the predictors and outcomes of donor appreciation. The objective of Study One was threefold; (1) explore the underlying processes explaining the relationship between donor appreciation and repeat donation activity, (2) qualitatively identify factors that inform donors' decisions to share or not share donation activity on SNSs, and (3) explore differences between the categories of

donation behaviour. The primary aims of conducting exploratory research is to further define the research scope, screen alternatives and discover new ideas (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2010). Given the broad scope and previously under-researched area, Study One utilised qualitative methods to explore donors' perceptions and experiences with donor appreciation offered by NFPs (Malhotra, Hall, Shaw, & Oppenheim, 2006).

3.4.1 Justification for interviews

Qualitative research methods are argued to offer deeper insights into complexities of a behavioural phenomenon (Neuman, 2011) and necessary where a detailed understanding of a process or experience is sought (Bazeley, 2007). Specifically, semi-structured interviews were deemed the most appropriate qualitative data collection technique for a number of reasons. Firstly, the semi-structured format allows the researcher flexibility, where the wording and order of questions is influenced by the interviewees' responses, whilst maintaining a topical-focus (Zikmund et al., 2010). Secondly, given the one-to-one communication basis, interviews can uncover deeper insights than focus groups due to the greater ease of asking probing questions to stimulate elaboration, obtain more meaningful responses and uncover hidden issues (Neuman, 2011). Lastly, interviews were chosen to reduce social pressures to conform to group response and potential bias commonly experienced in focus groups (Malhotra et al., 2006; Kamberelis & Dimitriads, 2011). This was particularly important to the current context, given the existence of strong social norms that donation behaviour should be performed selflessly (White & Peloza, 2009), and the high prevalence of social desirability bias when questioning individuals about charitable behaviour (Louie & Obermiller, 2000; Lee & Woodliffe, 2010; Lee & Sargeant, 2011).

Interviews can vary based on the communication medium. Personal interviews were considered the most preferred form of direct communication (face-to-face) as it provides a situation for participants to discuss their experiences and opinions truthfully (Stokes & Bergin, 2006). In instances where participants were unwilling or unable to meet face-to-face, telephone interviews were performed. Telephone based interviews were an appropriate alternative as the quality of data obtained is often comparable to the quality of data obtained through personal interviews (Zikmund, Ward, Lowe, Winzar, & Babin, 2011). The geographical dispersion of respondents was also overcome using this method (Shuy, 2001; Malhotra et al., 2006).

3.4.2 Unit of analysis

The unit of analysis in this research program is the charitable donor. Specifically, individuals who have made a voluntary donation of blood, time and/or money directed towards a NFP. There is ample evidence that donations of blood, time and money should not be treated as equivalent; with prior research documenting distinct motivation differences between each form of donation (Lee et al., 1999; Reed et al., 2007; Pentecost & Andrews, 2009). However, certain traits including the degree of formality, ability to be recorded and option for repeat performance distinguish the donation of blood, time and money from other forms of donation behaviour (e.g. goods and organ donation), and make such donation activities suitable contexts in which to explore online donor appreciation.

A primary distinction made in helping behaviour literature is that between informal and formal types of giving (Gottlieb, 1978; Einolf, 2008; Drollinger, 2010). Informal, impromptu helping behaviour usually involves an unanticipated situation where the subject has little time to react, such as giving money to a homeless person on the street or helping a friend move house (Amato, 1985; Drollinger, 2010). In contrast, formal helping behaviour involves having previously formed opinions about a cause and time to reflect before making a decision to get involved in the helping situation; donations are generally planned and directed through NFPs (Pearce & Amato, 1980; Lee et al., 1999). NFPs often retain individual records of donor contributions in a database after having made a formal donation (e.g. donating money online, volunteering at a fundraising event) as opposed to an informal donation (e.g. donating goods to a lifeline bin). In order to provide online donor appreciation, a donor management database is essential. Although organ donation is considered a formal helping behaviour, this research is seeking to explore the impact of online appreciation to encourage repeat donation behaviour. Thus, blood donation over organ donation was included as the chosen form of donation from the body, as the decision to donate organs often cannot be made more than once.

Specifically, the unit of analysis is Australian donors aged 18 to 40 years old who have made at least one formal donation of time, money and/ or blood in the past 12 months. A differentiated exploration of donor segments based on engagement in one or multiple donation forms was of particular importance in light of evidence showing the

number of donors engaged in more than one form of donation is increasing (Bekkers, 2006; Shehu, Langmaack, Felchle, & Clement, 2015). Donors aged 18 to 40 years old were the focus of this thesis for three reasons: (1) higher adoption and use of SNSs (Correa et al., 2010), (2) more likely to engage with brands on Facebook (Shao & Ross, 2015) and (3) greater tendency to self-disclose personal information on Facebook (Nosko et al., 2010) than older donors, which is necessary for online donor recognition.

3.4.3 Sample recruitment

The sampling procedure employed purposeful sampling principles, which is desirable for qualitative research involving a small sample. The aim was to identify 'information rich' participants who have certain characteristics, detailed knowledge, or direct experience relevant to the phenomenon of interest (Curry, Nembhard, & Bradley, 2009; Marshall & Rossman, 2011). The use of purposive sampling allows for the use of a sample which is meaningful and relevant to the research questions. Participants were screened to include only Australian adults aged 18 to 40 who use SNSs (such as Facebook) for personal use and have made a formal donation of blood, time and/or money within the last 12 months. Interviewing individuals who have recently made a donation within the past year was important as participants were more likely to be familiar with the research context. Quota sampling was used to an extent to ensure that single and multiple donation type donors were represented proportionally in the sample (Zikmund et al., 2007).

A sample of 20 individuals, who have previously made a donation of blood, time and/or money, was recruited through a two-stage convenience sampling method. Stage one involved generating a list of potential interview participants via an online survey shared through personal networks by the research team. The survey collected demographic information, donation history, personal social network use and an email contact for interview participation. Stage two involved emailing eligible respondents from the list generated requesting their participation in an interview. Eligibility was determined based on information provided in the survey; ensuring donation activity was consistent with the scope of donations outlined (e.g. direct, rather than indirect, donation to a NFP). Convenience sampling was appropriate as the ultimate goal of qualitative research is not to provide conclusive evidence nor generalise the results beyond the research sample, but rather explore the phenomenon in detail to gain further

insight (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). The sample size was deemed sufficient, as 'theoretical saturation' was reached after the researcher was able to document similar predictors and outcomes of donor appreciation, with no new relevant data offered in later interviews (Francis et al., 2010). During the interview, a guide was followed however, the list of questions was not followed rigidly and it was revised based on the ideas that emerged from the donors interviewed.

3.4.4 Pilot study

The interview procedure was piloted with eight members of the target population (QUT Ethics Approval Number 1300000772) to test the efficacy of interview questions and responses (Stebbins, 2001). Five female and three male Australian blood donors, between 18 and 40 years of age, were recruited using purposive sampling (Zikmund et al., 2011). Interviewees were recruited through the Blood Service database, with interviews conducted and recorded at the Brisbane blood donation centre. The purpose of the pilot study was to refine an appropriate interview framework and determine an approximate time length. The duration for the pilot interviews was, on average, 30 minutes depending on the willingness of the interviewee to share more or less information.

As a result of the pilot interviews, the sequencing and structure of the questions were changed, containing more indirect (projective), as opposed to direct, questioning techniques. Direct questioning involves asking respondents to reveal their own personal thoughts on a certain topic, in which the true purpose of the question is obvious to them (Malhotra et al., 2006). For example, '*Do you think it is important to recognise blood donors for their contribution?*' Alternatively, advocates of indirect questioning techniques presume that when directly questioned, respondents do not express their true feelings, motivations or attitudes as it could reflect negatively on their self-concept (Zikmund et al., 2011). Viewed as a 'face-saving' method, projective techniques are an indirect means of questioning that allows respondents to attribute their personal views to other people (Keegan, 2008; Bond & Ramsey, 2010). Individuals are expected to interpret the behaviour of a third party, an inanimate object or task situation within the context of their own experiences (Daymon & Holloway, 2002; Malhotra et al., 2006). Projective techniques, therefore, offer a structure for respondents to overcome self-consciousness and reveal thoughts that they would

otherwise be unwilling to express publicly. This is particularly true when the issue is personal or subject to strong social norms, as is donation behaviour (Malhotra et al., 2006; White & Peloza, 2009). Specifically, the 'third-person' projective technique is used, whereby the respondent is asked to relate the beliefs and attitudes of a third person to a certain hypothetical situation (e.g. friend, colleague, or 'typical' person) rather than directly expressing their own personal beliefs and attitudes (Malhotra et al., 2006). For example, '*Consider that someone you know has shared a post on Facebook about their recent donation. Why do you think they would do this?"*

3.4.5 Interview procedure

All interviews were semi-structured, conducted using an interview guide (see Appendix A), and lasted between 33 minutes and 65 minutes with an average duration of 50 minutes. Each interview commenced with a general discussion on prior donation activity to ease the respondent into the discussion. Questions like: "*When did you start donating?"* were used as an opening question to establish involvement and rapport between the interviewer and respondent (Liamputtong, 2007). This was followed by probing questions like: *"How many times have you donated (blood/ time/ money) since?"* to establish respondents' experience level in donating and draw a more complete story about their donation history.

The interview guide was developed by taking a holistic outlook of the context in which the phenomena of interest occurred (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug, 2001). Subsequently, the interviewer initiated discussion around the importance of donating to the individual and donor identity, with particular attention to exploring personal and role identities in relation receiving donor appreciation, followed by establishing existing social norms around donating in general that could influence donation behaviour; both its performance and promotion. An example of a question that would be used at this stage of the interview is: "*In your opinion, is being a donor considered good by others?"* Probing questions were used to allow respondents to elaborate on discussion points. Subsequent questions in the interviews directly related to eliciting specific information about donor appreciation (RQ1) and sharing donation activity (RQ2). If donors were multi-type donors (e.g. donated blood and money), comparison questions regarding the donation type were asked throughout.

The first key area explored in interview discussions was around donor attitudes and experiences with donor appreciation. The interviewer would introduce this phase of questions by asking what type(s) of appreciation the respondent has received in the past and the importance of receiving donor appreciation. The interview would then be directed towards understanding attitudes around receiving appreciation and continued donation activity using questions like; "*When you receive appreciation, how does it make you feel towards donating again?*" Using identity theory as a basis, the purpose of this discussion was to gain a sense of how donor appreciation fits within identity verification process. As NFPs are only beginning to use online platforms for donor appreciation, discussion was kept at a general level, with probing questions used to discuss online appreciation if not initially mentioned by the respondent.

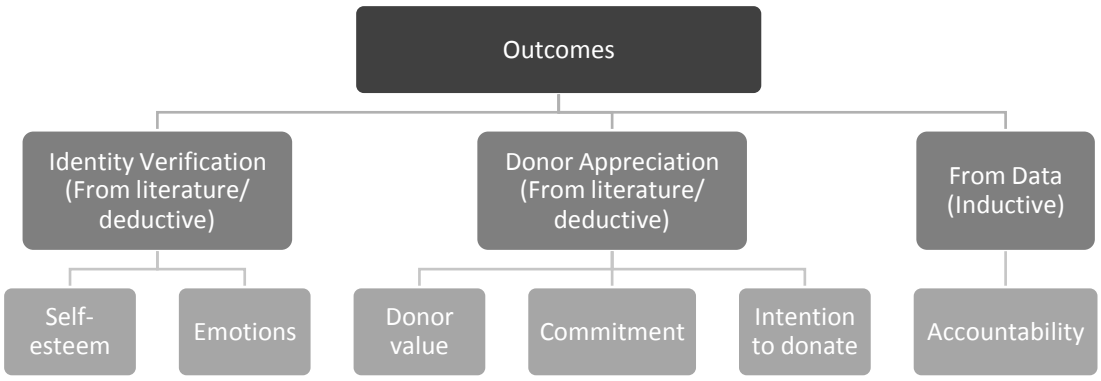
Following the discussion around receiving donor appreciation, the interviewer would move on to the second key area for discussion. Using self-disclosure theory as a guide, the interviewer would first ask the respondent about general online disclosure through SNSs, and then narrow the discussion towards donation activity as a topic of self-disclosure. An example of a question would be: "*Have you ever shared a status on social media about donating?*" This was then followed by a discussion of the respondent's opinions about receiving feedback from their social network on donation recognition, given the high immediacy and interactivity between members of SNSs. At the conclusion of the interview, all respondents were given the opportunity to provide any final comments or thoughts about donor appreciation. Respondents were then presented with a small box of chocolates as a thank-you gift.

3.5 Data Analysis

The analysis of the qualitative data commenced with manual transcription of the audio recordings of the interviews verbatim. Each transcript was assigned a three-part code to de-identify the transcripts. An example transcript code would be '*MB_Ben_27M'*. The first part of the code represents the type(s) of donation the respondent has performed (i.e. T = time, M = money and B = blood). For the second part, a name was included as a unique identifier; respondents' names were replaced with alternate names to protect privacy. Lastly, the respondents' age and gender were included. Therefore, respondent '*Ben'* is 27 years old, male and has recently donated money and blood.

Thematic analysis, a process involving the identification of themes or pattern recognition within the data, was used to analyse and code the interview transcripts (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Informed by the theoretical frameworks of identity theory and self-disclosure theory, this research will employ a combination of inductive (data-driven; Boyatzis, 1998) and deductive (theory-driven; Crabtree & Miller, 1999) thematic coding techniques to reach a higher level of interpretive understanding (see Figure 3.1). Given the research questions, inductive (open) coding is an appropriate first step as it allows themes to emerge from the data. Furthermore, deductive axial coding will be performed to uncover higher-order connections between underlying themes and factors identified in the transcript, as recommended by Corbin and Strauss (2008). Analysis will involve the combination of manual and computer based analysis (using the coding software NVivo 8) as it provides more accurate and reliable results (Crowley, Harre, & Tagg, 2002). The coding and grouping function of NVivo facilitates greater ease of data organisation and searching within the data (Sinkovics, Penz, & Ghauri, 2005).

Figure 3.1 Example of Inductive and Deductive Coding Framework



3.6 Ethical Considerations

Prior to commencing the research, ethical clearance was obtained from the Queensland University of Technology's Human Research Ethics committee, Ethics approval number 1400000391. At the beginning of each interview, the purpose of the research and expected benefits was described for participants and confidentiality of responses assured (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). All interviewees were asked to read and sign a

consent form (see Appendix B) approved by QUT Human Research Ethics Committee to ensure informed consent was obtained (Zikmund et al., 2011). Participants were presented with a small box of chocolates as a thank-you gift to show appreciation for their participation, time and thoughts. Each interview was audio recorded with respondents' permission and later transcribed verbatim for analysis. Anonymity was assured in the reporting process by removing all identifiable information and assigning a code to each transcript.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter outlined the qualitative methodology for Study One, which investigated RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3. The use of semi-structured interviews, sampling process, interview guide and analysis process was outlined. The following chapter, Chapter Four, presents the results of Study One.

Chapter Four: Study One Analysis

4.1 Introduction

A qualitative approach, using semi-structured interviews, was employed in Study One to explore three research questions. Firstly, this study aimed to explore underlying processes explaining the relationship between online donor appreciation and continued donation behaviour; *how does online donor acknowledgement and recognition stimulate repeat donation activity (RQ1)?* Secondly, such an understanding of online donor recognition is superfluous unless such recognition is shared to social networking platforms by donors. Therefore, this study also aimed to explore *why do donors choose to share (or not share) donation recognition on social networking sites (RQ2)?* Lastly, evidence suggests that motivational differences may exist between categories of donation in relation to receiving online donor appreciation and sharing donor recognition on SNSs; *what is the effect of donation category on donor responses to online donor appreciation (RQ3)?*

This chapter begins with an overview of the sample profile (section 4.2), followed by the analysis for research question one. Theoretical frameworks of donor appreciation (acknowledgement and recognition), donation related identities, appraisal and outcomes are defined within the data (section 4.3) before exploring relationships between the constructs (section 4.4 and 4.5). Next, this chapter provides analysis and discussion for research question two, beginning with an overview of sharing donation activity on SNSs (section 4.6). Potential influences of sharing (social norms, social risk, involvement, advocacy and self-disclosure tendency) are then discussed in relation to sharing donation activity and online donor recognition (section 4.7). Interrelations between these factors, as well as potential effects of message related components are explored. Lastly, to address research question three, similarities and differences between donations of blood, time and money will be discussed (section 4.8). The results of Study One were a precursor to Study Two which quantitatively investigates the research questions.

4.2 Overview of Sample Profile

A convenience sample of 20 Australian donors was recruited. Using purposive sampling principles, individuals were screened to include donors aged 18 to 40 who use SNSs and have made at least one donation of blood, time and/or money within the last 12 months. Further, individuals who donate single and multiple forms of donation were sought to ensure varying donation behaviour was represented proportionally in the sample. A summary of sample characteristics is provided in Table 4.1. Overall, whilst age was evenly represented, there was a higher proportion of female than male donors across single and multiple donation form categories. This reflects donor profiling research conducted by Shehu et al. (2015) in Germany, who found donors were more likely to be female across both single and multiple donation form categories. Similarly, most individuals within this sample were employed which has been identified as a common donor characteristic (Shehu et al., 2015).

Table 4.1 Study One Sample Summary Characteristics

	Donation Form							
	Single Form			*Multiple Forms*				
Sample Characteristic	Money Donation	Time Donation	Blood Donation	Money & Time Donation	Money & Blood Donation	Time & Blood Donation	Money, Time & Blood Donation	*TOTAL*
Age								
18-25yrs	3	1	3	2	1	1		*11 (55%)*
26-40yrs	1	2		3	1	1	1	*9 (45%)*
Gender								
Male	1		2	1	2			*6 (30%)*
Female	3	3	1	4		2	1	*14 (70%)*
Work Status								
Full-time	3	1		3	1		1	*9 (47%)*
Part-time or casual		1	2	2		2		*7 (37%)*
Not at all	1	1			1			*3 (16%)*
TOTAL	***4***	***3***	***3***	***5***	***2***	***2***	***1***	***20***

An overview of individual respondent characteristics, including donation frequency, is outlined in Table 4.2. A common distinction made across the donor career is that between new/novice donors and experienced donors based on frequency or number of previous donations. To date, there has been little agreement on what constitutes a novice donor, particularly across the donation of money, time and blood. However, using the blood donor classifications presented by Ferguson et al. (2012), which distinguishes between first-time (one donation), novice (less than five donations) and experienced donors (more than five donations), it appears the majority of the sample would be considered experienced.

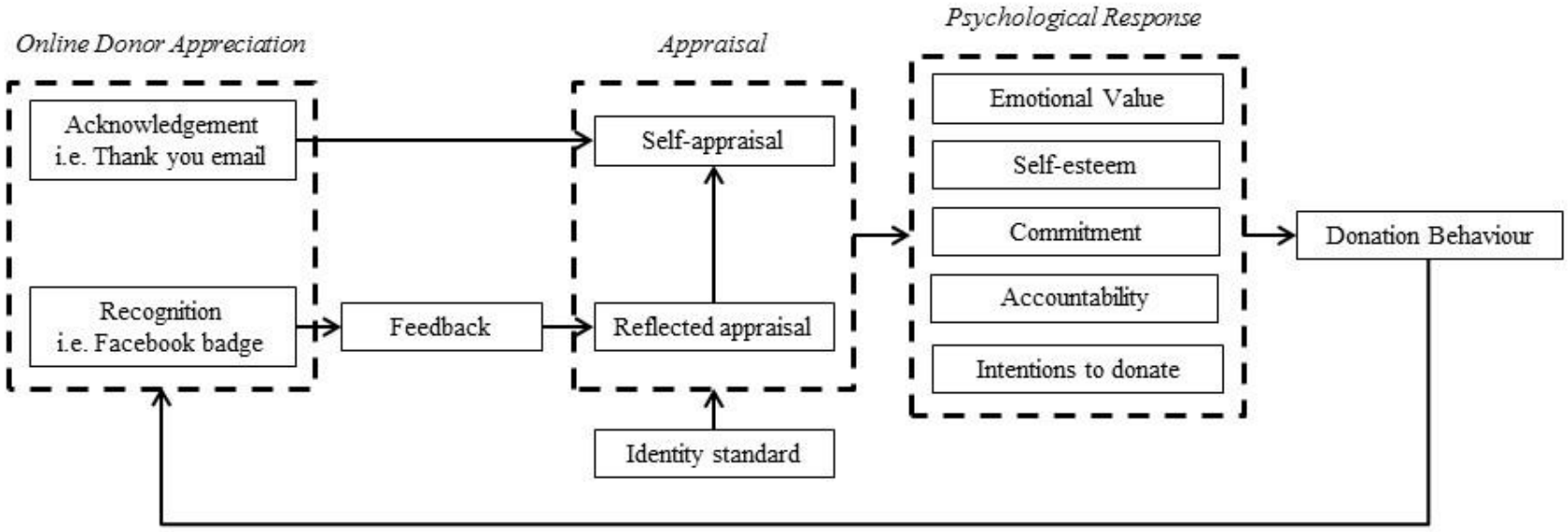
Table 4.2 Study One Individual Respondent Characteristics

Respondent ID	**Age**	**Gender**	**# of Prior Donations per Donation Type**		
			Blood	Time	Money
B_Emily_24F	24	F	< 5		
T_Olivia_27F	27	F		5 – 10	
T_Sophie_21F	21	F		1	
TB_Chloe_27F	27	F	< 5	*Unknown*	
T_Amelia_26F	26	F		5 – 10	
M_Jess_24F	24	F			5 – 10
TM_Alice_28F	28	F		11+	11+
M_Lily_19F	19	F			11+
M_Lucy_21F	21	F			5 – 10
TM_Ava_33F	33	F		< 5	11+
B_Jack_22M	22	M	11+		
TM_Ella_21F	21	F		5 – 10	11+
TM_Emma_21F	21	F		5 – 10	11+
TMB_Leah_27F	27	F	5 – 10	5 – 10	11+
MB_Max_21M	21	M	5 – 10		< 5
TB_Mia_23F	23	F	5 – 10	5 – 10	
M_Liam_30M	30	M			11+
B_Ryan_23M	23	M	< 5		
MB_Leo_27M	27	M	< 5		11+
TM_Aiden_28M	28	M		11+	11+

4.3 Online Donor Appreciation, Appraisal and Donation Behaviour (RQ1)

This section relates to RQ1 and provides analysis and discussion on the role of online donation appreciation within the identity verification process to encourage repeat donation behaviour. Analysis of the data revealed that online donor appreciation influences donation behaviour by informing the appraisal mechanism of identity verification. This research explored the role of formal communication through donor appreciation as perceptual inputs towards donors' behaviour appraisal. The two forms of donor appreciation were found to have a differential affect; acknowledgement (e.g. thank-you email) appears to have a direct influence on an individual's self-appraisal (i.e. individual evaluation of identity related behaviour), whereas recognition (e.g. Facebook badge) influences reflected appraisal (i.e. perceived evaluations of others) through a feedback mechanism. These effects are illustrated in Figure 4.1. Each of the four model components (donor appreciation, identity standards, appraisal and psychological responses) that influence donation behaviour are discussed below, followed by the relationships between these components in Section 4.4 and 4.5.

Figure 4.1 The Role of Donor Appreciation on Donation Appraisal Process



4.3.1 Donor appreciation

With the sector challenged by high donor attrition and turn-over (Merchant et al., 2010; Barraza, 2011; Masser et al., 2012), not-for-profit organisations (NFPs) have developed donor appreciation programs to increase loyalty levels either in terms of a behaviour (e.g. helping at a homeless shelter) or resources (e.g. funding, blood). There are two broad forms of donor appreciation; acknowledgement (private expression of gratitude) and recognition (public appreciation). Such appreciation is traditionally offered through offline means of communication (e.g. letter of thanks, branded tangible gifts), however NFPs are increasingly turning to online channels to develop donor relationships given the opportunities to affordably leverage this technology. Although this research is focusing on online donor appreciation, for the purpose of context discussion and comparison both online and offline means of donor acknowledgment and recognition are reported. The data showed evidence of both strategies, yet differences were evident in relation to donor response to acknowledgement and recognition.

Donor response to acknowledgement

Most respondents viewed acknowledging donors as an important practice undertaken by NFPs to make donors feel their donation or effort is appreciated. However, the data showed evidence of variation as to the preferred communication channel of such acknowledgement; specifically offline versus online donor acknowledgement. Some donors preferred receiving something tangible (e.g. thank-you letter in the mail, certificate) because it was perceived as more personal (less generic) and therefore more valued. Alternatively, research has identified donors are concerned over cost implications to the NFP associated with offline means of acknowledgement (Chmielewski et al., 2012). This is consistent with the data showing that some respondents would find online acknowledgement (e.g. thank-you email) more appealing as it presents opportunities for cost savings for the NFP;

> "*If I got a **letter it's a lot more personal**, I would **appreciate that more**. An email is nice enough, but the letter is more significant I think*" (TM_Olivia_27F)

> "*I'm **happy with an email**. **Letters** are too much of a **waste of resources***" (B_Emily_24F)

Consistent with previous research (Chelminski & Coulter, 2007; Davis, 2012; Foth et al., 2013), the data showed that some donors prefer to be discrete about their donation activity and would rather receive acknowledgement than recognition for making a donation;

> "*I think an **acknowledgement for me personally is fine**. When you donate and then it comes through 'thank you for donating, you've helped' I think that's fine for me*" (TM_Ava_33F)

However, this preference for acknowledgment may be based on existing perceptions of what is considered public recognition. When questioned '*Could you give some examples of what you consider being recognition?*' most respondents stated press media (e.g. TV, newspapers) or donor award ceremonies;

> "*People seeing me specifically, I wouldn't really like that, like in the **newspaper** or in the news*" (B_Chloe_27F)

However, press media and award ceremonies are not the only forms of donor recognition. When questioned further, donors' response to recognition varied in relation to the audience depending on the communication channel used, focus of the recognition (individual or group) and frequency of receiving recognition. These differences will be further discussed in the next section.

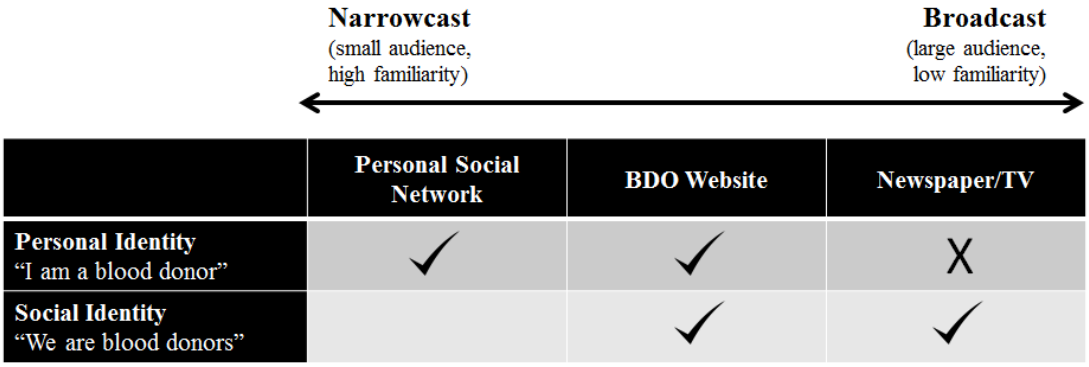
Donor response to recognition

The audience bearing witness to donor recognition strategies varied in terms of size and extent of familiarity to the donor (see Figure 4.2). For instance, publishing a donor's name in the newspaper is seen by a large audience often unknown to the donor (i.e. broadcast communication), whilst badges shared to personal SNSs are generally viewed by friends (i.e. narrowcast communication). In relation to the communication channel used, donors' response to donor recognition varied based on the focus of the recognition (individual or group) and frequency. Broadcast recognition was deemed suitable only when the focus was on the group, thus communicating a social identity (i.e. 'we' are donors). Alternatively, recognition through narrowcast communication channels was appropriate when the focus was on the individual (i.e. 'I' am a donor);

"*If they said '**thank you to all of the volunteers** who donated today' and there was a little square in an **mX*** [newspaper] *that would certainly be a lot more **appropriate**. It's not naming people it's just another way of saying thanks without putting a spotlight on individuals*" (TM_Emma_21F)

*"I'd probably be more likely to **share the badge** … it's a simple badge to say **I support this**"* (TM_Ava_33F)

Figure 4.2 Response to Donor Recognition; Focus and Channel



However, individual major milestone achievement (e.g. donor's 100th blood donation) was considered an exception (see Figure 4.3) to recognising individual donors, with broadcast recognition (e.g. newspaper) considered acceptable only for major milestones;

"*I think if people have been donating for **10-20 years**, then recognition in the **newspaper or TV** would be awesome for them*" (B_Chloe_27F)

Appropriate frequency of recognition (see Figure 4.3) via narrowcast communication channels varied. Given the time lapse between episodic donations, some donors were willing to receive and share a Facebook badge from a NFP every donation. Alternatively, some donors felt regular recognition minimised it's effect, in relation to both the importance of the gesture to the individual and its influence on others, and consequently preferred to receive recognition intermittently (after minor milestones);

"*Given the amount that I donate, probably yes* [I would **share a badge to Facebook every donation**] *because **I'm not constantly doing it every week**, so yes I probably would*" (M_Lucy_21F)

"*Receiving something after every donation, you would be receiving it a little too much. But it's nice at a **milestone** to **receive a little recognition**, but after **every time it would lose its effect***" (P-B_Brendan_33M)

Figure 4.3 Response to Donor Recognition; Frequency and Channel

	Personal Social Network	BDO Website	Newspaper/TV
Regular (every donation)	✓		X
Minor Interval (milestone e.g. 5, 10)	✓	✓	X
Major Interval (milestone e.g. 50, 100)		✓	✓

4.3.2 Identity standards

The basic premise of identity theory is that one's self-concept is organised into a series of identities that correspond to individual values and attributes (personal identities; Hitlin, 2003), as well as the roles an individual plays in society (role identities; Stryker & Burke, 2000). A personal identity is trans-situational and differentiates the person from others; emphasising a sense of individual autonomy (e.g. I love animals, I'm a good person; Gecas, 2000). Role identities are adopted by the individual as a consequence of the structural role positions they occupy (e.g. volunteer, father). Furthermore an individual can assume multiple identities simultaneously (Stryker & Burke, 2000; Hitlin, 2003). This was demonstrated in the data where a number of role and personal identities were identified in relation to donations of time, money and blood (See Table 4.3). Study Two focused on donor appraisals of a personal identity, as opposed to a role identity, because personal identities appeared to be more salient (perceived as more self-defining, Thoits, 2012) and relevant to donors across the donation of blood, time and money. Further role identities are specific to a category of donation, for example the role identity of blood donor only relates to donating blood, whereas personal identities are not donation specific.

Table 4.3 Donation Related Personal and Role Identities

Identity reflected by act of donation	Donation Category		
	Money	Time	Blood
Role Identity			
Donor	*		
Volunteer		*	
Blood Donor			*
Personal Identity (value/attribute)			
Moral identity (i.e. caring, compassionate, fair, friendly, generous, helpful, hardworking, honest, kind)	*	*	*
Supporter of cause	*	*	
Supporter of NFP	*	*	*
Vegetarian		*	
Pro-active	*	*	

Evidence of role identities

Once an initial donation was made, some individuals consciously or unconsciously adopt a role identity specific to their donation activity (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Masser, White, Hyde, Terry, & Robinson, 2009). For example, in the case of donating time, a role identity is based on the extent to which a person sees themselves as a volunteer. From the data it was clear that some individuals placed high importance on the act of donation and self-identified by their respective donating role;

> "*Being a **blood donor** is important to me, absolutely yes … I've always wanted to help*" (B_Ryan_23M)

> "*I don't purely give to animal charities so I would say it is just my … just the **donor identity** that I look to*" (M_Lucy_21F)

Evidence of personal identities

Other individuals did not self-identify by their role but more strongly identified with a personal identity (Finkelstein, 2008; Barraza, 2011; Sargeant & Shang, 2012), either

as a supporter of a particular cause (e.g. reducing domestic violence) or as a supporter of a specific NFP (e.g. RSPCA);

> "*I would identify more as a **supporter of particular causes**, not just a **volunteer***" (TM_Alice_28F)

One particular personal identity referred to consistently in the data is an individual's moral identity; a self-conception based on a social construction of an ethical person that outlines a set of moral beliefs and traits that motivate moral action (Aquino & Reed, 2002). A moral identity was observed in the data when respondents considered themselves to be caring, compassionate, fair, friendly, generous, helpful or kind. Furthermore, for some respondents, an act of donation more strongly reinforces a moral identity than a role or other personal identity;

> "*I think more **helping someone more than being a blood donor**. There is more than one way to help someone, and blood donation is just one of the ways*" (B_Emily_24F)

Helping others is a consistent identity standard for role and personal identities related to donation behaviour

When a role or personal identity is activated, a set of expectations and meanings serve as a standard of reference for appropriate behaviour (Thoits, 2012). An identity standard contains the meanings an individual attributes to themselves as a person (personal identity) or role holder (role identity), which guides individuals to behave in a manner consistent with their identity standard meanings (Stets & Carter, 2011). Regardless of whether individuals self-identified through their role (e.g. volunteer) or personal identity (e.g. supporter of cause, moral identity), a desire to either help the cause or help others in general was a consistent identity standard which donating helps to achieve;

> "*It's **important to me to feel like I'm helping people**. It's important to me because if you're not part of the solution, you're part of the problem*" (TM_Ava_33F)

4.3.3 Appraisal

To ensure congruency is achieved between the action and desired identity, individuals undertake identity verification (Burke & Stets, 2009); of which appraisal is a key component. Individual appraisal is a self-attributional process through which one

evaluates their identity performance (Laverie et al., 2002), which can serve to validate an identity. Appraisals are informed by perceptual inputs (e.g. self-reflections, impressions of others' views) that are interpreted to yield conclusions about identity efficacy (Stets & Carter, 2011). Therefore, appraisals were of interest to this research particularly in relation to providing donor appreciation as a potential input.

Appraisal types present in the data

Appraisals refer simultaneously to a person's self-appraisal and reflected appraisal; with both types present in the data. Self-appraisal is an independent personal evaluation of identity related actions resulting in internal identity verification (Laverie et al., 2002). Alternatively, reflected appraisals are subjective impressions based on how they perceive others to have evaluated their identity-related behaviour (Wallace & Tice, 2012), which can be based on actual appraisals (e.g. comments and actions received on SNSs) or individual perceptions of how others perceives their actions;

> "***I can*** *feel proud of myself for donating time and being there*" (TM_Ava_33F)

> "*Yeah well I hope so; I've always got* ***good reviews*** *when I've told* ***people*** *I donated blood*" (B_Ryan_23M)

Reflected appraisal influences self-appraisal

In addition to establishing self- and reflected appraisals as distinct constructs in the donor identity verification process, the data also revealed that reflected appraisals have a direct role in the development of self-appraisals. This is consistent with previous research demonstrating that self-appraisals are influenced by reflected appraisals in the contexts of physical attractiveness in school children (Felson, 1985) and tennis players (Laverie et al., 2002).

> "*That positive feedback lets you know that what you're doing is right.* ***I know I'm doing the right thing****,* ***but sometimes you need other people*** *to recognise that you're doing the right thing as well*" (M_Jess_24F)

However, when communication barriers are present that prevent persons receiving direct feedback about what others' think (i.e. lack of feedback opportunity), this results in biased reflected appraisals as individuals tend to project their own opinions to others (i.e. self-appraisals inform reflected appraisals through projection; Felson, 1985).

When questioned '*Is being a donor considered good by other people?*' some donors referred to actual appraisals, or feedback, received from others about their donation activity, while others had a tendency to attribute their views to others (Felson, 1985). For example, if a donor considers donating money as a positive action and doesn't really know what significant others think, their best guess may be that they have the same opinion as them;

> "*To my cause, **people are very positive** about it … I do generally tend to get quite **positive feedback***" (M_Jess_24F)

> "*Yes **I would say** so [being a blood donor is considered good by others]. **It's helping save lives***" (B_Chloe_27F)

4.3.4 Marketing outcomes

The overall aim of this research is to further understand how online appreciation by a NFP impact continued donation behaviour. To that end, it is important to delineate the marketing outcomes necessary to evaluate online donor appreciation. Marketing outcomes occur subsequently to appraisal interpretations. If a self-appraisal or reflected appraisal is positive (negative), confirming (disconfirming) identity-related behaviours, this results in varying responses that ultimately lead to a person either continuing (or avoiding) the activity (Laverie & McDonald, 2007). From the data, five marketing outcomes were identified; emotional value, self-esteem, commitment, accountability, and behavioural intentions.

Emotional value

Consistent with prior research demonstrating that donation activity generates a positive emotional utility (Bénabou & Tirole, 2006; Chell & Mortimer, 2014), the data shows individuals experience a surge of positive emotions related to making a charitable donation. Building on Merchant et al.'s (2010) notion of feeling more positive after receiving donor appreciation, this research identified such emotions in the form of emotional value which is centred on the idea of a 'warm glow' derived from the positive feelings or affective states that a behaviour provides (Andreoni, 1990; Mayo & Tinsley, 2009). Smith and Ellsworth (1985) demonstrate individual identity appraisal is the most proximal antecedent of emotion; where identity confirmation produces positive emotion and identity disconfirmation produces

negative emotion (Laverie et al., 2002; Stets & Carter, 2011). Within the data, only examples of positive emotion were identified, suggesting that donating was appraised positively in relation to relevant identity standards;

> "*I think donating money, because I do it often it* ***makes me happy****, because it makes me happy that I've supported somebody*" (TM_Ava_33F)

> "*It always* **feels good**. *It always feels, you know, you get the warm and fuzzies*" (M_Lucy_21F)

Commitment

Commitment, defined as an enduring desire to maintain a valued relationship (Morgan & Hunt, 1994), has been shown to be important when evaluating donor relationships with NFPs (Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005; Sargeant et al., 2006; Waters, 2008). Allen and Meyer (1990) presented commitment as consisting of three forms; affective, continuance and normative. However, only affective commitment was present in the data. Affective commitment refers to an individual's motivation to maintain a relationship because of feelings of attachment (Lacey, 2007);

> "*I think it is important to be acknowledged and that* ***makes you want to participate with the organisation again***" (T_Sophie_21F)

Self-esteem

Self-esteem reflects a person's overall evaluation of their self-concept (Tafarodi & Swann, 2001), based on perceived self-worth, self-efficacy to have an effect on the environment (e.g. make a difference to the intended cause) and authenticity (Stets & Burke, 2014). Within an identity theory framework, identity verification is considered a source of self-esteem (Cast & Burke, 2002); to the extent that when an identity is confirmed increased feelings of worth and efficacy are generated, while identity disconfirmation decreases overall self-esteem (Asencio, 2013). Laverie and McDonald (2007) found that favourable self- and reflected appraisals positively predict feelings of pride. Consistent with the literature; the data supports self-esteem as an important outcome of the identity verification process by increasing feelings of self-worth;

> "*I* ***feel better about myself*** *knowing that I'm actively doing something"* (TM_Olivia_27F)

Accountability

Having others overtly acknowledge an individual's donation (e.g. by 'liking' a donor recognition badge shared to Facebook) made respondents feel accountable to continue donating due to feeling worried that if they disclose participation in donation activity and do not continue the behaviour, others will perceive their support as fake or insincere. Unlike Lee et al.'s (1999) concept of personal obligation as a predictor of donor role-identity, accountability within donation more closely reflects the implicit or explicit expectations that one might have to justify one's beliefs, feelings and actions to others as described by Lerner and Tetlock (1999). Research has demonstrated that gaining a commitment or pledge to perform a socially desirable behaviour, increases the likelihood of its actual performance as individuals feel pressure to act consistently with that promise (Bator & Cialdini, 2000; Lee & Kotler, 2011; Mason, 2013). In this study, donor recognition through personal SNSs acts as a public declaration of support to a particular cause or NFP; thus increasing feelings of accountability;

> "*It's like they've made an* ***outspoken commitment*** *to the organisation and by doing that and telling everyone, maybe they might start to* ***feel committed to continue doing that***" (TMB_Leah_27F)

> *"When you* ***share it [badge] on Facebook****, everyone sees it, so it* ***increases the accountability*** *'people know that I'm a donor now' so it* ***motivates you*** *to be more regular, you* ***now have an image to uphold***" (B_Emily_24F)

Public behaviour provides evidence of personal character, thus increasing commitment to maintain identity and esteem related goals (Schlenker & Weigold, 1992). Felt accountability is described as an external, public and visible social process (Cummings & Anton, 1990) and usually implies that those whose actions are not perceived as consistent or reasonably justified will be negatively sanctioned by others (Royle & Hall, 2012). This is reflected in the data where by feelings of accountability motivate engagement in desired behaviour to avoid negative emotions (e.g. guilt) or be perceived as an undesirable image (e.g. insincere, uncommitted);

> "*It* ***keeps me motivated*** *and wanting to do more,* ***so people know you're not just a one-hit-wonder*** *or one-charity-wonder"* (TB_Mia_23F)

"*When people give you encouragement and feedback after you've told them, it makes you take donating more seriously because you feel more accountable, so if you haven't done it for a while and they ask you 'oh how's your volunteering going'* ***I would feel guilty if I hadn't done it lately*** *... If you tell people about it then you stop doing it, you're kind of either letting them down or* ***pretending to be better than you are***" (B_Chloe_27F)

Behavioural intentions

It is well established within the donation literature that an individual's intention to engage in donation is the most proximal determinant of actual performance of the behaviour (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Verhaert & Van de Poel, 2011; Winterich et al., 2013). Further, research has demonstrated a positive relationship between the provision of donor appreciation and increased donation behaviour (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998; Merchant et al., 2010). Within identity theory, behaviour is viewed as the result of intentional decisions to act according to identity standards (Charng et al., 1988), and internalisation of an identity promotes further performance of related behaviours (Stryker, 1980). This is supported by the data, where behavioural intention to donate appears to be indirectly affected by donor appreciation through an individual's appraisal and marketing outcomes;

"[If I didn't receive any acknowledgement] *I probably would* ***still have gone back*** *but maybe not as quickly or enthusiastically*" (B_Ryan_23M)

"*I* ***definitely would donate again*** *because I know now that it is saving lives*" (B_Emily_24F)

4.4 Relationship between Acknowledgement and Donation Behaviour (RQ1)

Analysis of the data revealed that online donor acknowledgement influences donation behaviour by informing the self-appraisal mechanism of identity verification. Therefore, formal communication through online donor acknowledgement acts as a perceptual input of self-appraisal, which subsequently influences emotional value, self-esteem and commitment (i.e. marketing outcomes) that contribute to an individual's intention and decision to continue or avoid engaging in donation behaviour.

4.4.1 Acknowledgement influences self-appraisal

Receiving donor acknowledgement from a NFP was found to inform an individual's self-appraisal beyond actual behaviour; acting as feedback that assists donors' decision evaluation. Such acknowledgement, consistent with McGrath (1997), was found to reinforce the message that the donation is making a difference (confirming consistency between the action and identity standard to help others) and that the donor is important and appreciated. Therefore the data supports donor acknowledgement as a perceptual input informing the donor identity verifications process;

> "*Just the fact that they can take some time to **say thank you really means a lot** and to me it feels like you've **actually done something to help them**"* (TM_Ava_33F)

> "*That small little **thank-you makes me feel like I am doing something**, I've done something to help achieve that not-for-profit's goals*" (MB_Max_21M)

In particular, donor acknowledgment can inform an individual's self-appraisal in relation to donating to a specific NFP. Bennett (2006) found donors were more likely to stay with a charity if they received acknowledgement from them for a donation. According to the data, this is because acknowledgement from a NFP confirms the donation was a worthwhile use of resources and subsequently improves commitment to the NFP;

> "*It made me feel good and **want to keep working with them** because it showed they wanted me to stay there*" (T_Amelia_26F)

> "*I would say to that one organisation, because it's **creating an emotional bond** as well, you've had the recognition, 'that's really nice, I'll donate to those guys again', whereas you're not really sure if you're going to have the same reaction from another charitable organisation*" (M_Jess_24F)

Similarly, when asked the question '*What if you received no acknowledgement from a NFP after donating?*' responses suggested that not receiving acknowledgment communicated to the donor that either (1) the donation was not helpful, or (2) that the NFP did not need the donation. Either perception would result in a low self-appraisal and consequently lower intentions to donate to that particular NFP. This is consistent with findings presented by Merchant et al. (2010) who found a significant decrease in monetary donation intentions occurred when no acknowledgement was provided;

"*If they **didn't appreciate** it I would see it as they **didn't need the money**"* (TM_Aiden_28M)

"*I **don't know if I'd be very happy with carrying on** because part of the reason was to meet people and be part of a group that felt the same, so if it was a bit more sterile and this is your job, you go out and do it and then you come back and you **don't get any acknowledgement or feedback, I'd probably not be interested in doing i**t*" (TM_Olivia_27F)

4.4.2 Information on donation impact strengthens the relationship

When information on the impact (or outcome) of a donation to a particular cause is provided with donor acknowledgement, this was found to strengthen an individual's self-appraisal as it contributes to identity related decisions. While acknowledgment is a strategy under reciprocity, such impact information relates to the reporting component of donor stewardship (Kelly, 2000). Reporting refers to proactive measures undertaken by a NFP to keep donors informed about how donations are being used, such as through annual reports, website updates and newsletters (Waters, 2008). As self-appraisal is a personal evaluation of identity related actions, and if 'helping people' is a behavioural expectation of an identity (e.g. moral identity), information that shows a donation did in fact have the intended impact of 'helping people' will confirm consistency between an action and identity resulting in a positive self-appraisal;

"[The email received after donating] *made me a lot happier, because it was like a **wake-up call that I can and I am saving lives** and it **made me a lot happier knowing that**"* (B_Ryan_23M)

"*For people who volunteer time, it's really **important to feel like it wasn't a wasted day** ... It's **good to know where your money is going** and that, I guess, makes you feel like **there's a reason to not cancel** that direct debit*" (TM_Emma_21F)

Reporting on the donation's impact can also alleviate uncertainty surrounding consistency between an action and identity standard (e.g. did the donation help others or not) and increase donor motivation and commitment beyond simply evaluating the behaviour alone;

"*When the charity is direct debiting money out of your account and you* ***haven't proactively researched where the money is going****, then* ***there is less of that feeling that you're making a difference*** (MB_Leo_27M)

"*It* [information on donation impact] *makes you go 'wow, if I donate more next year I can save even more lives' so it* ***makes you want to exceed past that****"* (TB_Mia_23F)

4.5 Relationship between Recognition and Donation Behaviour (RQ1)

Analysis of the data revealed that online donor recognition influences donation behaviour by indirectly informing the reflected-appraisal component of identity verification (i.e. perceived evaluations of others) via a feedback mechanism. That is, recognition provides an opportunity for feedback, and the presence or absence of actual feedback influence one's reflected appraisal. Sharing donor recognition and receiving feedback from an individual's social network acts as a perceptual input of reflected appraisal, increasing favourable marketing outcomes.

4.5.1 Recognition indirectly effects reflected appraisal through feedback

Consistent with the symbolic interactionist approach that assumes reflected appraisal is a conscious process, the effect of actual peer appraisal (i.e. direct feedback from others) on self-appraisal is assumed to be indirect through its effect on the reflected appraisal of peers (Felson, 1985). Similarly, Matsueda (1992) confirmed actual appraisals by others affected respondents' behaviour only indirectly through reflected appraisal. Receiving actual peer appraisals is dependent on the extent to which the behaviour is visible and presents an opportunity to receive verification through direct comments and actions of others (Swann, 1983). The immediacy, interactivity and opportunity for self-expressive behaviour and digital association through online platforms (Schau & Gilly, 2003; Wang & Stefanone, 2013) makes donor recognition via SNSs (e.g. sharing a badge to Facebook) a suitable context in which to receive such feedback. From the data it was interpreted that donor recognition indirectly informs an individual's reflected appraisal through a feedback mechanism. Donor recognition through SNSs provides the opportunity to receive reinforcement from socially significant others (e.g. friends and family). Similarly, Winterich et al. (2013) found positive reinforcement (conceptually similar to an individual's reflected appraisal as it was based on perceived evaluations of others opinions) to moderate the relationship

between donor recognition and donation behaviour. However, from the data there was no evidence of a direct relationship between donor recognition and reflected appraisal; such reflected appraisal were dependent on the presence of feedback from others. Therefore, feedback is conceptualised as an explanatory mechanism between donor recognition and an individual's reflected appraisal.

4.5.2 Type of feedback affects donors' appraisal

Within the data, three types of feedback were identified; positive support feedback, positive action feedback, and no feedback. Positive support feedback was identified as indications of liking or encouraging comments (e.g. 'that's amazing) from socially significant others. Many theorists have argued that such social validation (received through positive support feedback) serves to promote the internalisation of an identity by contributing to positive feelings of self-esteem (Greenberg et al., 1986; Stice, 1998; Schimel et al., 2001). The data demonstrates that positive support feedback contributes to more positive reflected and self-appraisals, and consequently increased motivation to continue to donate;

> "*… it's a little bit of* ***validation*** *that you know your friends think you're doing good, and that's always a very nice feeling*" (M_Lucy_21F)

> "*It would make them feel good because it would justify that they've done something valuable, it kind of justifies their behaviour. Just in case they weren't sure,* ***having people say 'oh that's amazing, you're doing a great job' it kind of validates it in their mind that it's a good cause and what they're doing is a good thing***" (B_Chloe_27F)

Positive action feedback was identified as feedback that suggests someone has donated to a NFP as a result of seeing that the individual donated to the cause (e.g. through donor recognition on Facebook). Social psychology research on social influence has focused on the goals served by being influenced by others, not the goals served by having influence over others. Bourgeois, Sommer, and Bruno (2009) suggest that the perceived successful persuasion of others (e.g. a change in attitude or belief) will impact individuals' sense of accuracy (desire to be correct in one's belief) and meaningful existence (idealised state of fulfilment). The data supported this assertion, demonstrating that positive action feedback can positively inform an individual's self-

and reflected appraisal in relation to supporting a particular NFP (personal identity e.g. supporter of RSPCA);

> *"It **feels good** to positively **influence other people** to donate to something that you're committed to. **A positive reaction would encourage a positive reaction from me**" (M_Lily_19F)*

Negative feedback was identified as comments or actions by others that suggest disapproval of the behaviour or questions the appropriateness of the behaviour; resulting in a lower reflected appraisal. Receiving negative or no feedback was found to have a potential negative impact on both a donor's decision to share donor recognition to SNSs after future donations and repeat donation behaviour;

> "*It probably would affect him, if he did continue donating he **probably wouldn't post about it again if he got negative feedback** … I think he would probably still donate because he, like me, understands the importance of it*" (B_Jack_22M)

> "*If they **didn't receive any feedback**, they'd **see it as a negative perception of their donation towards the cause**, they'd think not a lot of people support this, I guess I **shouldn't do this again***" (M_Lily_19F)

4.5.3 RQ1 Summary

In summary, this research has addressed the aims of RQ1. Firstly, the data revealed that identity verification, specifically self- and reflected appraisal, is an underlying process explaining the relationship between donor appreciation and repeat donation activity, and that acknowledgement and recognition differentially affect donors' appraisals. Acknowledgement (e.g. thank-you email) appeared to have a direct influence on an individual's self-appraisal, whereas recognition (e.g. Facebook badge) influenced reflected appraisal through a feedback mechanism. Secondly, the research aimed to identify outcomes of donors' appraisal that may influence repeat donation behaviour. Four marketing outcomes of a positive or negative appraisal were identified that potentially influence intention to donate again; emotional value, self-esteem, commitment and accountability.

4.6 Overview of Sharing Donation Activity on SNSs (RQ2)

Unlike the receipt of online donor acknowledgement which is a decision made by the NFP, receiving donor recognition through SNSs requires the donor to share the badge to a SNS in order to transform it from donor acknowledgement to donor recognition (i.e. making a badge sent privately to the donor public). To provide context and background around disclosure of donation activity on SNSs addressing RQ2, this section commences with an overview of the goals served by sharing donation activity on SNSs (section 4.6.1), followed by a comparison between sharing donation activity and other content (section 4.6.2). Predictors of sharing donor recognition on SNSs identified in the data are outlined in section 4.7.

4.6.1 Goals served by sharing donation activity on SNSs

Self-disclosure is often used to achieve one or more goals. From the data analysis it was clear that disclosing donation activity served multiple motivational functions. Self-clarification disclosure (conveying information about one's identity to define one's position for self and others; Derlega & Grzelak, 1979; or self-presentation motivation; Lee et al., 2008) and social validation disclosure (share information to validate one's self-concept by increasing social acceptance and general liking) were identified as reasons to share donation activity;

> "*I'd put it in my own* ***profile description that I am a blood donor*** *... when I get up to ten* ***I'm going to want to advertise that*** *'look I've done ten I'm into the double digits*" (B_Ryan_23M)

> "*If you post anything on Facebook,* ***you want people to go 'oh that's awesome'***" (B_Chloe_27F)

However, most often self-clarification and social validation goals were reported as what the individual or others would perceive to be the motivation behind sharing donation activity. Such motivation to share donation activity could be perceived negatively where the discloser is considered to be bragging or 'big-noting' themselves, or positively where the motivation behind disclosure is disregarded because the act itself was a good thing;

"*I'm cynical about that kind of stuff so* ***I would think they are bragging*** *or wanting to get attention for doing a good thing. I'm sure that's not reflective of everyone, that's just me being cynical.*" (M_Liam_30M)

"*…there are people like 'I'm a blood donor, look at me'. I would still like the picture* ***because it is still a good effort at the end of the day****. Some people will do it just for the 'look at me' aspect.* ***Whatever their motivation is, as long as they are donating blood*** *that's all that matters*" (B_Emily_24F)

Information sharing disclosure motivation was identified by Lee et al. (2008) as an individual's psychological need to share one's own information or knowledge about a particular topic or area of expertise for the benefit of others (e.g. restaurant review). However, it appeared that respondents didn't share donation activity for the purpose of information sharing alone, but to (1) raise awareness for the cause or NFP, and (2) to encourage others to act;

"*They share it to – I know because I've been this person – just* ***to get the message out****. It's kind of like* ***free advertising for the organisation***" (M_Lucy_21F)

"*Generally when I share things on Facebook for various causes, I share it to* ***get the word out*** *there and* ***get other people on it***" (TB_Mia_23F)

4.6.2 Comparison between sharing donation activity and other content

Previous research has focused on delineating types of information revealed through disclosure on social media and the effect on actual disclosure (Nosko et al., 2010; Emanuel et al., 2014); with classifications most often making a distinction between personally identifiable (or identity sensitive) information (e.g. gender, birth day, employer, pictures) and attribute or interest based information (e.g. likes and dislikes, hobbies, social activities). Respondents made comparisons between posting about donation activity and more general day-to-day activities, both of which would be categorised as potentially stigmatising information (Nosko et al., 2010) or subjective statements (Emanuel et al., 2014). However, the data suggests that disclosure of particular interest based information can vary between users. Sharing donation activity was considered more important and less frivolous than social activities or meal options;

"*Yes because you're actually* ***doing something constructive for the community*** *or Australia in general, whereas someone posting about* ***eating a donut, no one cares***" (MB_Max_21M)

"*I think* ***it's more meaningful****. It reflects what that person values. You get more of an insight into someone* ***when they post stuff about causes*** *or what's happening in the world rather* ***than the trivial stuff***" (TM_Ella_21F)

Yet, other general day-to-day activity was posted more frequently than donation activity within respondents' social networks because such content was perceived as more relatable and interesting to the audience. This is supported by Leary and Kowalsky (1990) who propose that target values determine content for impression construction, whereby and individual tailors their disclosure to present an image consistent with the perceived values and preferences of their audience.

"*I think because someone's posting something about everyday life,* ***it is part of everyone's routine*** *so everyone feels the need to say something, 'I'm just eating cornflakes' or something like that. Whereas,* ***if someone says 'I just spent an hour donating plasma' a lot of people can't relate to that.*** *It's* **not part of a normal routine** *so they don't feel the need to say anything about it*" (MB_Max_21M)

4.7 Predictors of Sharing Online Donor Recognition (RQ2)

As receiving online donor recognition requires the donor to share the badge to a SNS, this section provides analysis and discussion on what influences donors' decisions to share donor recognition to SNSs, and relates to the second research question: w*hy do donors choose to share (or not share) donation recognition on social networking sites?* Analysis of the data revealed five key factors that explain why donors share online donor recognition; social norms (section 4.7.1), social risk (section 4.7.2), involvement (section 4.7.3), advocacy (section 4.7.4), and self-disclosure tendency (section 4.7.5). Together, some of these factors are interrelated (section 4.7.6), where their impact on sharing can be altered by message components of donor recognition (section 4.7.7).

4.7.1 Factor 1: Social norms and sharing

It is evident from the data analysis that individuals often do not make decisions alone; where the expectations and behaviour of others appeared to be considered when deciding on an appropriate action (Burchell, Rettie, & Patel, 2013). Distinct types of

norms exist with varying influence on behaviour (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955). Descriptive norms relate to an individual's perception about the prevalence of behaviour (i.e. what people do; Lapinski & Rimal, 2005), while injunctive norms are based on what is perceived to be socially acceptable by most people and subjective norms concern what it is considered normative among socially significant others (i.e. what people should do; Kenny & Hastings, 2011). With regard to the decision to share donor recognition on SNSs, it appears social norms around both performing and sharing an act of donation are important influences.

Social norms around performing donation behaviour

The data analysis showed that the decision to share donation activity on SNSs was dependent on all three types of social norms. For instance, if the respondent knew others performed the donation activity (descriptive norms), perceived it was considered a good action (injunctive norms) and friends were supportive of donating (subjective norms) the more likely the individual would share donor recognition about the donation activity (see Table 4.4). Social norms expressed by respondents varied by donation type. Mostly positive social norms around donating time, money and blood were identified;

> "*Particularly for the **blood**, **a few of my friends do it**, I suppose they gave me the initial idea to go and donate* [Is that the same with donating money?] *Yeah I think so, again, a **few of my friends donate** I think a bit more proactively than me, so they're happy to talk about the processes and what's involved*" (MB_Leo_27M)

> "*It's a good thing, **you should be doing it** **[donating blood]**, like donating your time and effort, you should be doing it*" (B_Emily_24F)

No negative norms were identified for the donation of blood, but were identified for donating money and time. If a respondent was not aware of others donating money (negative descriptive norms), or perceived that society in general did not support the donation of money (negative injunctive norms), they were less likely to share donor recognition on personal SNSs. Overall, when social norms were positive (negative) the decision to share donation activity increased (decreased).

Table 4.4 Social Norms around **Performing** Donation Behaviour

Social norms around performing donation behaviour		Sharing donor recognition on SNSs		
		Time Donation	**Money Donation**	**Blood Donation**
Descriptive Norms	Positive	↑	↑	↑
	Negative		↓	
Injunctive Norms	Positive	↑	↑	↑
	Negative	↓	↓	
Subjective Norms	Positive	↑	↑	↑
	Negative			

Note: ↑ = increase in likelihood to disclose donation activity; ↓= decrease in likelihood to disclose donation activity

Social norms around sharing donation behaviour

In comparison to performing donation behaviour, it seems social norms for sharing an act of donation are different (see Table 4.5); with more reference to what others do (descriptive norms) than what others think (injunctive and subjective norms). In particular, respondents who reported positive descriptive norms (i.e. they were aware of others disclosing donation activity), were more likely to consider sharing donor recognition to their personal SNS than those who were not aware of others sharing donation activity. Similar to social norms around performing donation behaviour, when social norms around disclosing donation behaviour were positive (negative) individuals were more (less) likely to disclose. In contrast, however, mostly negative social norms (i.e. others do not share or do not approve of sharing donations) around donating time and money were identified;

> "***Normally only donating blood**, they would normal take a photo of the needle in the arm and caption 'getting stabbed today' or something like that*" (TB_Mia_23F)

> "*I was just always **brought up not to talk about money**. Don't talk about what you get paid, don't talk about what your debt and expenses are … money very rarely comes up in conversation … **I've never seen it [disclosing donations of money] on my timeline***" (TM_Emma_21F)

Prior research has demonstrated the role of subjective norms and subsequent behaviour, for instance Cheng et al. (2006) found subjective norms around negative

WOM significantly predicted intentions to engage in negative WOM. Moreover, Bobkowski and Pearce (2011) recently demonstrated the importance of the relationship between subjective norms (represented by friendship group religiosity) and religious self-disclosure. Regardless of the individual's level of religiosity, social network users whose friendship group were religious were more likely to self-disclose their religious status than those whose closest friends were not religious. Similarly, the data supports that an individual's social network likely model self-disclosure related norms, setting expectations for appropriate self-disclosure;

> "[Have any of your friends ever **shared anything about their donation activity?]** ***No****, no that I've known … I wouldn't say it's a very common thing in my social network*" (M_Jess_24F)

> "*It* ***depends on your friends****. If they're not into 'let's take pictures of us doing cool stuff for the community'* ***then you don't do it*** *… If other people did it* [shared donation activity on Facebook] *maybe. The stuff I've seen is not so much money donations it's more like time donations.* ***If more people weren't afraid of promoting money donations*** *for a cause legitimately,* ***I think I'd be okay with that***" (TM_Ella_21F)

Table 4.5 Social Norms around **Sharing** Donation Behaviour

Social norms around sharing donation behaviour		**Sharing donor recognition on SNSs**		
		Time Donation	**Money Donation**	**Blood Donation**
Descriptive Norms	Positive	↑	↑	↑
	Negative	↓	↓	↓
Injunctive Norms	Positive			↑
	Negative	↓	↓	
Subjective Norms	Positive			↑
	Negative	↓	↓	

Note: ↑ = increase in likelihood to disclose donation activity; ↓= decrease in likelihood to disclose donation activity

4.7.2 Factor 2: Social risk and sharing

Perceived risk relates to uncertainty around whether actions would be accepted by others, and potential negative consequences that could result from non-acceptance

(Campbell & Goodstein, 2001). In relation to sharing on SNSs, the Disclosure Decision Model (Omarzu, 2000) presents self-disclosure as a decision-making process based on an evaluation of the possible rewards versus the possible risks of disclosing in any specific social situation. Although several sources of risk have been identified in the literature (Mitchell, 1999; Barkworth, Hibbert, Horne, & Tagg, 2001), a reoccurring theme in the data was social risk, which concerns an individual's uncertainty regarding the acceptability of an action by their reference groups and the potential negative consequences that would follow non-acceptance. The level of perceived social risk largely depends on whether the action is public or private; with public activities more easily judge by others thus carrying a higher social risk (Campbell & Goodstein, 2001). Given the public nature of self-disclosing on SNSs, it was apparent from the data that level of perceived social risk associated with the act of sharing donation activity influenced individuals' overall self-disclosure decision. Specifically, respondents who perceived high social risk were less likely to share donor recognition than those who perceived low social risk;

> "***I don't post anything***, ***I'm really afraid of how people would judge*** *me because I'm so judgemental of other people*" (TM_Ella_21F)

In particular, sharing about donation activity was deemed to be riskier than sharing other content due to concerns about social judgement. This is supported by donation literature given the widespread assumption that donation behaviour should be performed selflessly (White & Peloza, 2009), and the high prevalence of social desirability bias when questioning individuals about donation behaviour (Louie & Obermiller, 2000; Lee & Woodliffe, 2010; Lee & Sargeant, 2011);

> "*More* ***people would judge you if you post stuff like that [donation activity] than if you post 'I'm on the beach'****... Maybe because* ***not many people donate as much as they do trivial things****. I think it's such a rarity especially in my age range.* ***Most of us post 'we got to Eat Street' and you see photos of that and everyone does that*** *and no-one really thinks about it in the way that somebody is making so much money for such-and-such or thinking about starting a fundraiser or doing those bigger things like that*." (TM_Ella_21F)

Undesired image as a potential consequence associated with perceived social risk

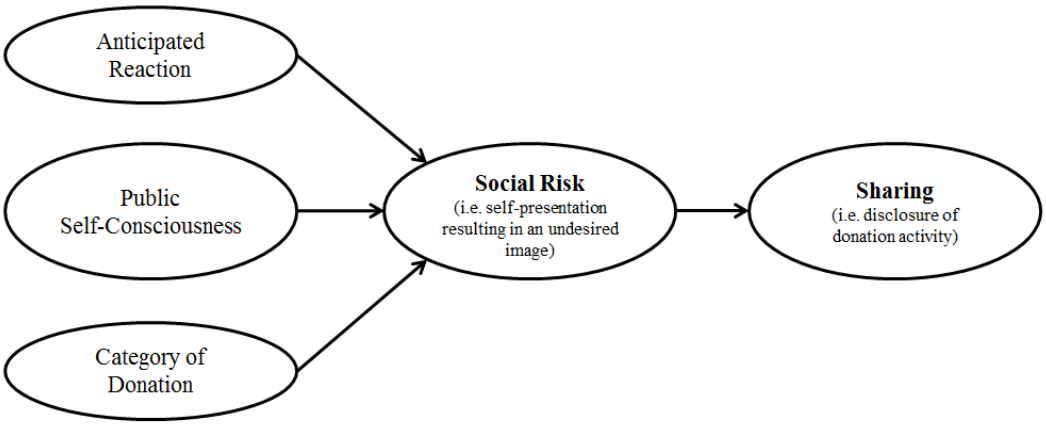
Potential negative consequences associated with social risk of self-disclosure involve losing face, stigmatisation and embarrassment resulting from the assumption that others might negatively evaluate actions of an individual. As self-disclosure is a strategy for impression formation (Derlega & Grzelak, 1979), such negative social consequences are suggested to result from perceptions that others' associate an undesirable image with a particular action; thus the action is avoided. According to impression management theory (i.e. the process by which people try to control impressions others form of them; Leary & Kowalsky, 1990), self-presentations are affected not only by how people think they are but by how they would like to be and not be perceived. Thus, individuals tend to manage their impressions to be consistent with desired images and not to be consistent with undesired identity images. This was evident in the data, where respondents thought they might appear as a 'bragger' or 'attention seeking' if donation activity was shared to their SNSs;

> *"If you do something like that [share donation activity on social media] there are going to be people out there that are going to* ***think that you're just doing it for attention*** *... but I would be coming from a place where I just want to share the experience ...* ***I don't want my friends to think that I'm seeking out acknowledgement or gloating***" (T_Sophie_21F)

Sources of perceived social risk associated with sharing donation activity

The data revealed three sources of perceived social risk; anticipated reaction, public self-consciousness and category of donation (see Figure 4.4). If an individual anticipates a negative reaction from others, the individual is less likely to share donation activity (Petronio, 2002) due to higher social risk of potential negative social consequences. Similarly, sharing donation activity would not occur unless respondent's anticipated a positive reaction to such disclosure. This is consistent with impression management theory where individuals attempt to maximise the likelihood of creating a desirable image impression and avoid undesired outcomes (Leary & Kowalsky, 1990).

Figure 4.4 Sources of Perceived Social Risk



Further, interpersonal (relationship) closeness variation between individuals has been shown to impact degree of self-disclosure (Altman & Taylor, 1973). However, as an individual's online social network is estimated to be several times larger than their offline network (Sheldon, 2009) and is composed of large and diverse audiences (e.g. strangers, acquaintances, close friends, family; Gilbert & Karahalios, 2009) it is likely an individual is at different stages of relationship closeness with those in their social network which consequently limits disclosure behaviour. Marwick and Boyd (2010) argue SNSs produce a context collapse of audiences which complicates self-presentation and disclosure decisions by having the discloser attempt to address various audience values simultaneously (Krämer & Haferkamp, 2011). This is shown in the data, where respondents preferred to disclose donation activity when the audience was defined and a positive reaction was anticipated; thus perceived social risk was low. Conversely if the audience was undefined (i.e. varied degree of familiarity to individual) and the anticipated audience reaction was unclear or perceived to be negative, sharing donation activity was less likely to occur because perceived social risk was higher;

> "Y*ou're sort of putting yourself out there a bit I feel, you d****on't know how others are going to feel about it***" (T_Sophie_21F)

> "*Even though it is sort of an uncontrolled platform, anyone can engage in the conversation on Twitter, most of the* ***people who do follow that conversation are blood donors and/or passionate about the cause or that area, so I can mostly guarantee that they're supportive***" (B_Jack_22M)

Petronia (2002) argues that what is perceived as highly risky self-disclosure for one person might not be perceived as risky for another person. The data suggests this difference in perceived social risk is subject to individuals' public self-consciousness. This refers to the level of awareness of the self as a social object and the concern a person has towards how their outer image is being perceived (Gould & Barak, 1988). An individual with high public self-consciousness is more concerned with conforming to social standards and have been found to limit information shared on their Facebook page to avoid self-presentational failure (Gogolinkski, 2010). Alternatively, individuals low in public self-consciousness may display more information on their Facebook page (e.g. donation activity) because they feel less anxiety about being negatively evaluated by others;

> "*Everything you put out there **people perceive differently**. That's **definitely something I consider** every time I put something up on social media, like I'm not overly active on Facebook and that's purely because of how people perceive everything*" (T_Sophie_21F)

> "[Are you **worried about how people might react** to your post?] ***No**. I don't know if that's a good or bad thing. I'm my own person… **I feel like it's a good think so I like to share it***" (B_Ryan_23M)

The data also demonstrated that the category of donation (time, money or blood) affected the degree of perceived social risk associated with sharing donation activity on SNSs. In particular, sharing blood donation activity was considered to have the least social risk attached given the widespread support, followed by donations of time. The highest level of perceived social risk was attached to sharing monetary donation activity;

> "*I think people **would respond better to me sharing about donations of time [than money]** … it wouldn't be received like you are trying to appear better than other people*" (TM_Ava_33F)

4.7.3 Factor 3: Cause involvement and sharing

The data analysis suggested that the extent to which the cause or NFP was of personal interest or of importance to the individual affected their decision whether to share donation activity, or more specifically, publicly demonstrate support for the charity.

Such dimensions of interest and importance characterise the concept of involvement, defined as representing the level of interest or importance of an object (or cause) to an individual (Russell-Bennett, McColl-Kennedy, & Coote, 2007). Similarly, high cause involvement (Hajjat, 2003) or high charity involvement (Bennett & Gabriel, 2000) has been found to occur when a particular issue or act has either personal relevance, inherent interest or intrinsic importance to the donor (Zaichkowsky, 1985);

> "*I wouldn't share it unless it was **something I was very close to and meant something to me**, yeah that would be the **only instance I would share it***" (M_Liam_30M)

> "*If it was someone I'd been volunteering with and have **been committed to**, like [NFP], I guess I would, but if it was someone I **didn't really have much connection to**, I wouldn't. I'd have to **have previous experience** with them and feel part of the organisation before I would*." (T_Amelia_26F)

The involvement construct has received considerable interest and support as an important determinant within the individual purchasing decision process (Zaichkowsky, 1994; Bennett, Hartel, & McColl-Kennedy, 2005). Within a charitable context, Lafferty (2009) found that consumers' response to cause-related marketing was more positive when the cause was important to them. Further, individuals who were highly involved with the charities to which they donated were more likely to purchase unconventional charity products than those with lower involvement (Bennett & Gabriel, 2000) and enhance an individual's propensity to give impulsively (Bennett, 2009). Furthermore, Bennett (2013) suggests that increased donor engagement with a NFP can extend to non-transactional behaviours, including word of mouth referrals and online community interaction through web posting and advocacy. Therefore, the literature is compatible with the view that the higher degree of NFP or cause involvement, the more likely the donor is to share their donation activity;

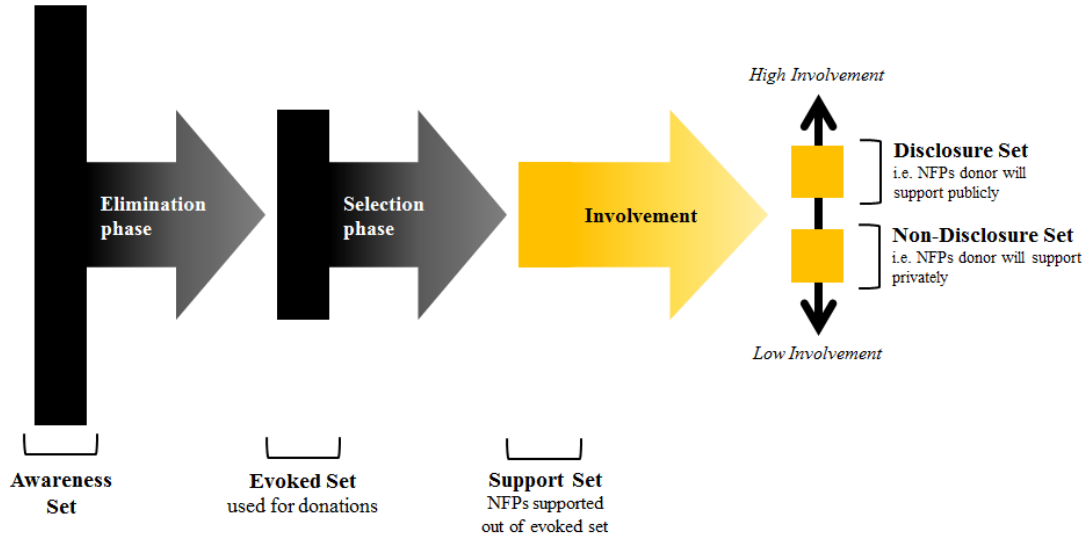
> "*Yeah if I **believe in the cause**, and that I **support regularly** I'll **definitely post about it***" (TB_Mia_23F)

> "*As I've **become more involved** with [NFP], it's **something that is really close to me**, I tend to do more stuff with them. I follow their website and **share information** about them*" (TM_Alice_28F)

Involvement influences sharing by organising donors' evoked set of disclosure appropriate charities

Further, when an individual donates to multiple charities, only donation activity to those whom the individual exhibits high involvement would be shared on SNSs. The data analysis suggests that involvement informs disclosure set formation from which disclosure decisions are made (see Figure 4.5). Often the concept of an 'evoked set' identifies those few brands out of all the existing brands (i.e. awareness set) in a particular product category given actual purchase consideration by the consumer (Abougomaah, Schlacter, & Gaidis, 1987). Once an individual makes a donation to a particular NFP within their evoked set, such brands form a donor's support set (i.e. a list of NFPs the individual has donated to). Involvement is then applied as a strategy to organise the support set hierarchically (on a scale ranging from highly involved to low involvement) that individuals then use when deciding what charities to support publicly through sharing donation activity on SNSs (i.e. disclosure set), and privately (i.e. non-disclosure set).

Figure 4.5 Involvement in Disclosure Set Formation Process



Note: 'Black model components' adapted from Abougomaah et al. (1987); 'gold model components' are contributions of the current study

According to Brennan and Mayondo (2000), the personal relevance of a purchase decision is determined by an individual's state of involvement. This is supported in

the literature where preference for a particular brand is a result of involvement (Bruwer & Buller, 2013; Gamliel, Herstein, Abrantes, Albayrak, & Caber, 2013). Further, high cause or NFP involvement could make the individual process charity appeals more intensely and hence be more receptive to communication initiatives (Zaichkowsky, 1985; Martin, 1998). Highly involved donors may use their knowledge of the issue in making judgements of the merits of engaging in public support (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983). Thus, people who regard the donation activity as personally relevant and important, interesting and necessary (i.e. high involvement; Bennett & Gabriel, 2000), may have greater confidence in the integrity of the cause or NFP and consequently be more likely to share donation activity with their social network, forming their disclosure set;

> "*I'd **pick the charities** with which I would do so. **With [NFP] it's something that my friends and myself support** so that I probably would [share] to encourage people. Some other ones I might not as much because maybe the charity doesn't matter to me as much*" (TM_Ava_33F)

4.7.4 Factor 4: Advocacy and sharing

Individuals responded positively to sharing donor recognition when a social benefit of the act was perceived. From the data analysis, such social benefits included raising awareness of a particular NFP or cause (through brand advocacy), and eliciting support for the NFP or cause (through influencing others);

> "***Unless I could see some benefit for the Blood Service or the charity**, like the more people that put their name up the more people they think will donate, if it was something like that I'd happily put my name up. If it's just more for my own recognition **I wouldn't put my name up***" (MB_Leo_27M)

> "*Whenever I donate blood, money or whatever, my **two main thoughts behind it are a) I'm helping the company, and b) I'm trying to figure out a way to get other people to do the same thing** ... the more people I can get involved, the more donations can happen and the better we are at achieving the NFP's goals*" (MB_Max_21M)

Social benefit of sharing through brand advocacy

Brand advocacy occurs when individuals are active in their behavioural and spoken support of a brand (e.g. not-for-profit organisation), generating awareness and offering

positive WOM about the brand to others (Becerra, 2013). Christopher, Payne, and Ballantyne (1991) present the process of turning prospects into advocates as moving up a ladder, where a prospect (has not made a purchase) may be persuaded to become a customer (has made at least one purchase), to a client (makes automatic repeat purchases), then to a supporter (demonstrates passive support) and finally to an advocate who actively support an organisation (White & Schneider, 2000). Thus, advocates demonstrate the highest commitment to an organisation. Advocacy enables an individual to express themselves, while the implicit endorsement benefits the brand (Wallace et al., 2012). The extent to which individuals viewed sharing donor recognition as a means to generate awareness by spreading the good word about a particular NFP or cause improved their willingness to share such recognition;

> "*I definitely think it* ***opens up a conversation*** *about why you donated to a particular charity. I know in my case, if I have donated and told people about it, it means they think about it twice before they donate next time*" (M_Lucy_21F)

> "*It's good to* ***advertise the sorts of charities*** *that you think are* ***doing a good job***" (TMB_Leah_27F)

Social benefit of sharing through influencing others' actions

Advocacy within the context of donation appears to extend beyond simply making a positive recommendation about the NFP (i.e. positive WOM), but donors also viewed sharing donor recognition as a way to elicit support for the NFP. Social psychology research on social influence has focused on the goals served by being influenced by others, not the goals served by having influence over others. Bourgeois et al. (2009) suggest that the perceived successful persuasion of others (i.e. change another's attitude, belief, or behaviour) will impact individuals' sense of accuracy (desire to be correct in one's belief) and meaningful existence (idealised state of fulfilment). Such benefits are reflected in the data, where respondents reported experiencing positive emotional states resulting from influencing others donation behaviour;

> "*It feels good to* ***positively influence other people*** *to donate to something that you're committed to*" (M_Lily_19F)

> "*It's good to know you're* ***helping to get others involved***, ***it's a good feeling*** *and I like that feeling. It's part of the reason why I do it too*" (TB_Mia_23F)

From the data analysis it appeared that such influence over others occurs for two reasons; establishing donation as normative and creating behavioural benchmarks. Firstly, the attitudes and behaviour of others is often considered when deciding on appropriate action (Burchell et al., 2013). Sharing donor recognition can be considered a form of behavioural communication through which social norms are propagated (Kincaid, 2004). In line with descriptive norms, the greater perceived prevalence of behaviour, the more likely an individual will engage in the behaviour because it is considered normative (Lapinski & Rimal, 2005). Therefore, communicating engagement with a NFP (in the form of sharing donor recognition) positively increases perceptions of the prevalence of donation behaviour, and influences others by establishing positive descriptive norms around donating;

> "*It's **good for people to understand** that it's **normal to donate to charity …** I think it helps other people know it's actually the norm to donate money. If you're not donating money and you have a lot of money, you should be thinking about doing that*"" (TMB_Leah_27F)

> "*When you look at society and think **other people like it, maybe I should do it too**. Some **people really look at that, what other people are doing***" (T_Amelia_26F)

Secondly, sharing specific information about individual donation activity appears to create behavioural standards to which others may compare their own actions to. For example, others may construe the donation activity of individuals to represent appropriate behaviour if one wants to portray a moral identity;

> "*If they **see that I'm regularly doing it** they might think 'well if it's that easy, **I might go and do it**'* (B_Ryan_23M)

> "[Why would sharing a badge on a social networking site about recent donation activity encourage others to donate?] *Because they would see it as achievable … There is often a status quo that people sort of reach for whether that's wages or even your fitness level, and I think it is **possible for a status quo to exist in relation to how much you donate or contribute to NFP organisations** and if you start sharing like 'I can do this' or 'I've donate here' you might just have a couple of people say 'oh well I could give such and such some money as well, that's easy, **if they can do it I can do it***" (TM_Ava_33F)

Sharing and advocacy as identity standards

As discussed previously, individual identities (e.g. volunteer, moral person) hold a set of expectations that serve as a standard of reference for appropriate behaviour (Thoits, 2012). The data analysis suggests that individuals are more like to share donor recognition to the extent that advocacy forms a behavioural expectation of a particular identity. For example, if an individual adopts a personal identity around helping a specific cause (e.g. animal welfare), in addition to donating to NFPs that promote animal welfare, generating awareness and support for the cause may also be actions consistent with the identity as such actions provide a social benefit to the cause;

> "[Do you see it as part of your role as a blood donor to promote blood donation?] *Yeah I guess … **I feel as though I should put that on there** and continue to do it … **it just makes me feel good that I've done it; not just donating but sharing the message***" (B_Ryan_23M)

> "*It's not a responsibility as such, more so **I feel that it helps the cause a lot and I'd like to do it***" (TM_Aiden_28M)

4.7.5 Factor 5: Self-disclosure tendency and sharing

From the data analysis it appeared that respondents considered their content sharing behaviour on SNSs in general as well as specifically in relation to donation activity. That is, individuals with a low tendency for sharing content on SNSs were less likely to share donor recognition than their high disclosure counterparts. This is supported by prior research where psychological disposition for self-disclosure has been shown to increase the likelihood of actual disclosure of personal information on SNSs. In one study, 31% of the variance in self-disclosure on Facebook was accounted for by personal disposition for self-disclosure (Christofides, Muise, & Desmarais, 2009). Further, an individual's disposition for online self-disclosure has been shown to vary in relation to usage rates of SNSs (Chen & Sharma, 2015). Trepte and Reinecke (2013) demonstrated that disposition for self-disclosure and SNS use interact reciprocally, whereby predisposition for self-disclosure increases SNS use through a selection effect, and that SNS use affects disposition for self-disclosure through a socialisation effect. This is reflected in the data, as respondents expressed both low SNS use and disposition for self-disclosure, or both high;

> "*I'm a very* ***low or infrequent user of social media*** *…* ***I don't post personal things on Facebook*** *… If I post anything I'm typically sharing economic things I've read or a news article, I would share content more than comments*" (M_Liam_30M)

> "[In general I post about] *my dogs. If I'm going somewhere cool or seeing something interesting, like travelling. If I see something funny I'll post it, or I might give a shout out to friends who have helped me*" (TB_Mia_23F)

In addition to a general disposition for self-disclosure, some respondents referred more specifically to a tendency for self-disclosure of donation activity. When respondents were asked "*Do you share donation activity on Facebook?*" responses varied from never to a lot. Similar to a general disposition for self-disclosure, individuals with a high tendency for donation disclosure on SNSs were more likely to share donor recognition;

> "*I've pretty much* ***checked-in every time*** *I've donated*" (B_Ryan_23M)

4.7.6 Interrelations between the five factors

Five individual factors were identified from the data that influenced an individual's decision to share or not share donor recognition; social norms, social risk, involvement, advocacy and self-disclosure tendency. However, some of these factors appear to have inter-relationships rather than independent influence. Specifically, social norms and involvement inform social risk, and involvement is related to advocacy. These interrelations will be discussed further in the following sections.

Social norms and social risk

Social risk was found to vary depending on whether social norms around donation participation and disclosure were positive or negative. Specifically, if social norms were positive (negative) perceived social risk would be lower (higher). Social norms derive influential power by individuals basing decisions on the opinions and attitudes of others, thus expressing actions that diverge from social norms is often associated with social risk (Campbell & Goodstein, 2001). Such social risk is concerned with the uncertainty around whether that decision would be accepted by others. Perceived social risk depends on whether the activity is public or private. If private, social norms are likely to exercise little influence over behaviour (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955).

Donation itself is a relatively private act, where social pressure to engage in donation activities may be latent or not perceived at all (Lapinski & Rimal, 2005). Whereas, sharing donation activity on SNSs (via donor recognition) is characteristically a public activity given that information on these platforms is communicated to an individual's entire social network and as such attracts a degree of social risk (Wien & Olsen, 2014). Consequently individuals who perceive their actions to oppose social norms may be reluctant to express their choices or opinions to others;

> "[If you post something about donation activity] *you could be* ***offending people's sensibilities*** *really because most people wouldn't be giving or donating or anything altruistic, you're almost throwing a cat amongst the pigeons. The* ***negative feelings*** *are probably motivated by the* ***lack of that activity in other's lives***" (MB_Leo_27M)

Involvement and social risk

Perceived social risk increases with uncertainty around how others will evaluate individual's actions and possible negative consequences (e.g. losing face, embarrassment, undesired image) that follow negative evaluations (Petronio, 2002; Wangenheim, 2005). However, involvement appears to be a risk-reducing strategy within the context of sharing donation activity that is used to justify sharing decisions. Highly involved donors regard the NFP or cause as personally relevant and important (Bennett & Gabriel, 2000), where a greater understanding of the issue reduces social risk as the importance of the cause becomes more prominent in disclosure decisions;

> "*I also share some of the stuff on social media, which* ***may annoy some people but I think it's really important***" (TM_Alice_28F)

> "*I'm feeling more comfortable sharing that information. I suppose when you know something, or when you feel a bit more educated about something your opinions are more valid as well.* ***Because I've learnt the gravity of the situation my own personal thoughts of my actions*** **[social risk]** ***aren't as relevant****; I'm focused more on the cause, and I don't have as much reservation as I used to*" (TM_Aiden_28M)

Involvement and advocacy

The data analysis suggests that involvement influences engagement in advocacy behaviours. When a consumer becomes connected to a brand, this connection can lead to brand advocacy (Anderson, 1998). This was reflected in the data where respondents

reflect a higher tendency to advocate the NFP or cause to which they share high involvement;

> "*If I was promoting a charity and **encouraging other people to donate to it**, I would **pick the ones that meant the most to me***" (TM_Keira_33F)

Therefore, involvement appears to reinforce advocacy subsequently influencing self-disclosure decisions around donation activity; in particular sharing donor recognition. Self-brand connections (i.e. the extent to which the NFP or cause is self-expressive) appears to be an underlying mechanism of this relationship. Consumers often form a stronger connection (representing high involvement) with brands that help them construct or reinforce their desired self-concept (Escalas & Bettman, 2005). Further, Kemp, Childers, and Williams (2012) and Wallace et al. (2012) found the more self-expressive a brand is (or the higher self-brand connection), the greater an individual's brand advocacy. This is represented in the data where involvement and advocacy increase the more a NFP or cause is considered self-expressive;

> "*I feel strongly about all of the NFPs I donate to but **some of them might be particularly relevant** because I've had a close association with them... there's also selectively putting up what you want to get attention for supporting as opposed to just putting everything up*" (TM_Cam_28M)

4.7.7 Marketing message components and the five factors

An interesting finding from the data was the importance placed on communication and message components of the Facebook badge itself, such as whether the badge focused on the impact of the donation or the individual contribution. Message related components of donor recognition appear to influence disclosure decisions through interactions with three of the five determinants of sharing online donor recognition (see Table 4.6). Social norms and self-disclosure tendency appeared to be independent determinants uninfluenced by external stimuli, such as the content of donor recognition. From the message components identified in the data, three are common across the donation of time, money and blood. These include 'focus on cause', 'focus on individual/ milestone' and 'call to action'.

Table 4.6 Message Components and Determinants of Sharing

Message components of online donor recognition		Determinants of sharing online donor recognition		
		Social Risk	Advocacy	Involvement
MONEY	Focus on cause (*e.g. donation impact is highlighted*)	↓	↑	↑
	Focus on individual (*e.g. $ amount of donation is highlighted*)	↑	↓	
	Focus on cause and individual (*e.g. John donated $20 which vaccinated one animal*)		↑	↑
	Call to Action (*e.g. NFP requests sharing*)		↑	
	Episodic vs Regular Donation	↓		
TIME	Focus on cause (*e.g. donation impact is highlighted*)		↑	↑
	Focus on individual milestone (*e.g. John planted 100 trees*)	↓		
	Call to Action (*e.g. NFP requests sharing*)		↑	
	Timing (pre-donation)		↑	
	Episodic (as opposed to regular) donations	↓		
BLOOD	Focus on cause (*e.g. donation impact is highlighted*)		↑	↑
	Focus on individual milestone (*e.g. 1st, 10th blood donation*)	↓		
	Call to Action (*e.g. NFP requests sharing*)		↑	
	Generic *(e.g. 'Bloody Hero')*	↑		
	Encourage others (*e.g. I give blood, will you?)*	↓	↑	

Note: ↑ = increase in …; ↓= decrease in psychological determinant because of message component

For example, if the amount of a money donation is shared, this increases social risk. Whereas, when information on the impact (or outcome) of a donation to a particular cause is included in disclosure content (e.g. one blood donation saved three lives) this appears to increase advocacy and involvement, while reducing social risk as individuals anticipate a more positive reaction from disclosure audiences;

> *"Perhaps if the **badge was more informative** 'I've saved three lives' for a blood donation, maybe something like that. It puts a tangible sort of feel on the whole idea, rather than just saying 'I'm a blood donor'.* (TB_Chloe_27F)

> *"I'd be more inclined to share it if it said '**this dog's life has been saved because [respondent's name] donated $20'** that kind of thing, not a general badge with a dog and cat with the RSPCA saying I'd donated $20. I'd think that's not really interesting"* (MB_Max_21M)

When milestones were recognised, as opposed to every donation, this seemed to reduce social risk as milestones were considered more of a personal achievement than simply 'another' donation;

> *"If you can be selective about how you use these badges, maybe 'I've donated 10 times', 'I've run a total of 100km in the last three years for this charity' that would be cool, 'I've cycled 60km'.* ***I think a lot of people are more supportive of an achievement*** *in the way of fitness or a doing goal* ***as opposed to seeing how much money you can spare****"* (TM_Ava_33F)

4.7.8 RQ2 summary

In summary, this research has addressed the aim of RQ2; to identify factors that influence donors' donation related disclosure decisions on SNSs. The data revealed five key constructs of importance that explain why donors would or would not share donor recognition on SNSs. These are social norms (both in relation to performing and sharing an act of donation), social risk, involvement with the cause, advocacy of the NFP, and self-disclosure tendency.

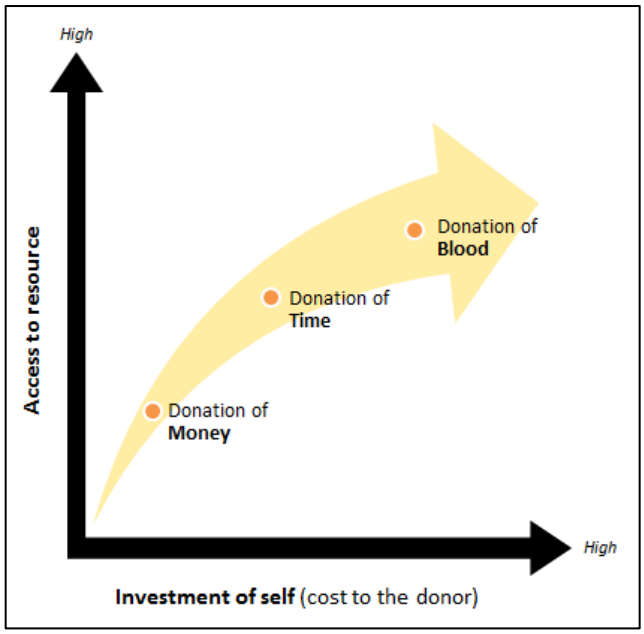
4.8 Category of Donation

In this study, a donation of time (i.e. volunteering) refers to performing a voluntary service to a NFP on regular or isolated occasions, a donation of money refers to making a direct financial contribution to a NFP without receiving a substantial benefit in return, and a donation of blood refers to giving whole blood only. To explore similarities and differences between categories of donation addressing RQ3, this section commences with an overview of the nature of donating blood, time and money (section 4.8.1), followed by a comparison between receiving donor appreciation (section 4.8.2), and sharing online donor recognition (section 4.8.3).

4.8.1 Nature of donating blood, time and money

The data analysis demonstrated that donations of blood, time and money vary by the nature of what is given. Specifically the act of donation was found to vary by the investment of self and level of access to resources (see Figure 4.6). Donations of money were found to incur the lowest perceived cost to the donor, yet access to this resource was more restricted (low accessibility). Alternatively, blood was a highly accessibly resource to donate, but incurred the greatest cost to the donor.

Figure 4.6 Nature of Each Category of Donation



Investment of self in donation activity

Investment of self refers to the individual costs associated with performing an act of donation. Such costs can be both monetary and non-monetary, such as the time and effort involved, psychological or physical discomfort (Lee & Kotler, 2011). The cost to the donor varies according to the donation activity. For example, a donation of money involves a direct monetary cost, a donation of time involves a temporal cost (non-monetary) as well as a loss of potential income (monetary), and a donor may experience fear, anxiety, pain and temporal costs (non-monetary costs) while donating blood (Lee et al., 1999); thus blood donation reflects the highest investment of self.

This is supported by the data analysis, where donations of time and blood are considered a greater investment of self, due to the increased level of psychological and physical effort involved in performing the donation. Donations of blood are considered a greater investment of self than donating time due to the effort involved to visit a donation centre, the invasive nature of the donation procedure, the personal nature of what is given and the need to overcome psychological barriers in order to perform the donation;

> "*Volunteering **time** is often **more of a sacrifice** than donating **money***" (TM_Emma_21F)

> "*There is a lot of effort involved, like **overcoming fears**, **making time to go to the Blood Service, filling out the paper work**, or things failing on you, it **takes a lot of effort**, sometimes a few hours of your time. With **donating cash or donating time, you just go there, finish your donation and go home***" (B_Emily_24F)

Access to resources in donation activity

The data analysis revealed that in addition to investment of self, donation activity can also vary by the extent to which an individual has access to resources needed to make the donation. This is similar to the opportunity component of the MOA model presented by MacInnis, Moorman, and Jaworski (1991), whereby motivation to engage in a behaviour is moderated by an individual's ability and/or opportunity to engage in that behaviour (Emens et al., 2014). In the current study, blood is perceived as the most widely accessible resource (therefore with the greatest opportunity to be donated), followed by time then money. This is reflected in research conducted by Shehu et al. (2015) who profiled monetary donors as having a high net income compared to non-donors, and volunteers had a low net-income compared to non-volunteers, thus demonstrating a preference for donation form based on access to resources. MacDonnell and White (2015) explain the perception of resource access according to construal level theory (Trope & Liberman, 2010); where money is construed as relatively more concrete, finite and tangible than time and is therefore perceived to be less accessible than time.

> "**E*veryone has blood to donate** whereas **some people don't have money** to donate*" (MB_Leo_27M)

"*… if you ask them for* ***money once a month, it feels more like a burde****n* ***than*** **[volunteering** at] *one-off events throughout the year for a couple of hours*" (TM_Ella_21F)

4.8.2 Receiving donor appreciation

The data showed evidence of both acknowledgement and recognition strategies present across the donation of blood, time and money, yet differences were evident in relation to the donor appreciation received across donation categories. In response to the question '*Have you received acknowledgement or recognition from a NFP organisation for making a donation? If yes, can you give me an example?'* donors indicated receipt of donor appreciation (online and offline means of communication) as a result of donating. There was variation in the types of acknowledgement and recognition received by respondents (see Table 4.7). Nearly all respondents, with the exception of one, reported having received some form of private acknowledgement of a donation made, such as a certificate and 'thank-you' letter or email;

"When I was donating regularly, when they send you a tax receipt they usually **say 'thanks for this'**… Through **email and mail** as well" (TM_Aiden_28M)

"They send me a **letter** to say the amount of blood you donated this year, saved this many lives, and that's really cool to read" (TB_Mia_23F)

Respondents reported receiving a variety of recognition from NFPs for donating, but only for donations of time and blood. Such recognition has been provided in the form of tangible branded gifts, milestone awards (e.g. badges), identification on the NFP's website, as well as posts by the NFP to SNSs recognising donors as a group and individuals;

"*I suppose when we went out to King George Square and a simple* ***post on a Facebook page*** *by [NFP name excluded] saying 'thanks to all our volunteers that went out today and collected' that to me was public recognition and really nice*" (TM_Ava_33F)

"I don't mind getting the **badges**, they feel like they're getting bigger and better" (B_Aiden_22M)

Table 4.7 Acknowledgment and Recognition; Received and/or desired

Type of Donor Appreciation	Donation Category		
	Money	Time	Blood
None	*		
Acknowledgement (offline)			
Thank-you letter	*	*	*
Certificate of appreciation		*	
In-person		*	*
Acknowledgement (online)			
Thank-you email	*	*	*
Thank-you + impact email	*		*
Recognition (offline)			
Branded tangible gifts (e.g. key ring, badges, stickers)		+	*
Thank-you event (e.g. dinner)		*	
Award ceremony (e.g. Thank-you plaque presented at graduation ceremony)			
Recognition (online)			
NFP website		*	+
NFP post to social media (i.e. general thank-you to all donors)		*	*
NFP post to social media (e.g. Volunteer of the month)		*	+

* = received by respondents

+ = desired by respondents

Note: Shaded boxes indicate donor appreciation strategies investigated in prior research

The varying use of donor recognition strategies is reflective of the literature in that there is limited evidence guiding appropriate recognition programs for donors. With the exception of providing small branded tangible gifts (Glynn et al., 2003; Chmielewski et al., 2012) and publishing students' names on a university website for volunteering (Winterich et al., 2013), there is limited research (see shaded cells in Table 4.6) examining donor recognition for small, discrete acts of charity, particularly through online platforms. Further, donor appreciation was more prevalent for donations of time and blood, than money; suggesting that the investment of self that is involved in the donation should be reflected in the type of donor appreciation offered;

> "*It really is the **effort involved** in the achievement that **warrants the acknowledgement** of it*" (MB_Leo_27M)

> "*I always receive a **certificate of appreciation** from* [NFP] *... **Volunteering** time is often more of a sacrifice than donating money ... In terms of **donating money**, I don't know, you always get a '**thank you' in your receipt** when you donate online which is lovely ... it **would seem weird** if I got a hand signed certificate of appreciation for donating money*" (TM_Emma_21F)

While differences were identified around the donor appreciation received by donors, the interpretations, processes and outcomes presented for RQ1 appeared consistent across the donation of blood, time and money. This suggests that once a donation is made and donor appreciation is received all donors (regardless of donation category) undertake identity verification, consisting of self- and reflected appraisal that result in varied levels of emotional value, self-esteem, commitment and accountability which influence intentions to donate again.

4.8.3 Sharing online donor recognition

Several differences were identified between the donation of blood, time and money, and sharing online donor recognition. These include the timing of when donors would share donor recognition varied (with volunteering acts preferably pre-donation, post-donation for donations of money, and either pre- or post-donation for blood donation), social norms and social risk, and involvement with the cause or NFP. Thus, it can be concluded that there were in fact vast differences in predictors of sharing donor recognition across the donation of time, money and blood.

Appropriate timing of sharing donation activity

Similar to the consumer consumption process (Solomon et al., 2013), donation activity consists of pre-donation, donation and post-donation stages. Appropriate timing of self-disclosure within the donation stages appears to vary across category of donation. Disclosure of monetary donation activity is appropriate post-donation, as it often occurs spontaneously (no planned commitment to donate) and the outcome of the donation is not often known until after the donation is made. On the other hand, sharing periodic volunteering activity to SNSs most often occurs pre-donation as this increases

opportunity for individuals to attain social benefits for the NFP or cause (i.e. elicit support);

> "*9 times out of 10 if people are going to volunteer they'll post 'hey **I'm volunteering here at this time** come down and see me, or if you want to help out give me a call' and **that's how they get more volunteers***. [So posting about volunteering happens before?] *Yeah **before the event** … volunteering is often more organised and people will do a plug for the event to get people to go*" (TB_Mia_23F)

Alternatively, blood donation activity can be disclosed pre-donation (appointment made, solicit support to join at appointment), during the donation (e.g. picture of donation in action) and post-donation (highlight milestone achievement, or impact of donation);

> "*The first time it was definitely the **whole process, before, during and after**. Now I probably just post about it after*" (B_Emily_24F)

> "*I've put something up when I **made the appointment** and then when I've **actually gone for the donation***" (B_Ryan_23M)

Social norms, social risk and category of donation

Social norms (or the perceived normality) around performing and sharing an act of donation were mixed, with the data suggesting that sharing an act of blood donation on SNSs is, overall, more widely accepted and performed than donations of time and money. Similarly, more social risk was attached to sharing a donation of money, than time or blood. This may be attributable to a societal taboo around openly talking about money in general, and specifically donating money, caused by unequal access to financial resources (Trachtman, 1999; Wong, 2010);

> "*I would **feel more comfortable sharing about blood donation** because you know there is almost no negative effect. But **for money**, some people I know don't have enough money to donate and **it would be unfair to impose on them some sort of standard** that makes them feel like they should when they can't. But with blood … **everyone has blood to donate whereas some people don't have money to donate**, so by putting something out there about donating money might be a bit insensitive*" (MB_Leo_27M)

Involvement and category of donation

Involvement with the cause or NFP was a more prominent predictor of donation disclosure for individuals who have donated time and money; this is likely due to the number of NFPs that donors could potentially donate time and money to, unlike blood donation where there is only one option;

> *"Probably **only ones that I feel strongly about.** Obviously I feel strongly about all of the NFPs I donate to but **some of them might be particularly relevant** because I've had a close association with them. I **wouldn't share all of them**."* (TM_Aiden_28M)

However, for multiple donation type donors (e.g. donates money and blood), involvement with the cause may in fact play a role in donors' sharing decisions around online donor recognition. Thus, individuals' involvement with the cause may not only influence what causes to publicly support but also what type of donation.

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter discussed and explained the qualitative findings for Study One. The results addressed all three research questions by explaining the underlying processes accounting for the positive relationship between donor appreciation and repeat donation activity (RQ1), identifying variables that influence individuals' self-disclosure decisions around sharing donation activity on SNSs (RQ2), and explore similarities and differences between categories of donation (RQ3). These findings led to the development of two conceptual models, one each for RQ1 and RQ2. The following chapter will further explain the theoretical models, and justify hypotheses developed based on the findings presented for Study One. The proposed models and hypotheses will form the basis for quantitative empirical testing in Study Two.

Chapter Five: Model Development

5.1. Introduction

Building on the qualitative findings of Study One, this chapter provides a discussion and literature-based rationale for the development of two theoretical models addressing RQ1 and RQ2 separately. The models were empirically tested in Chapter Seven.

5.2. RQ1 Model Constructs

According to the qualitative findings of Study One, and the underpinning theoretical framework of identity theory, online donor acknowledgement and recognition act as perceptual inputs in the identity verification process informing individuals' self- and reflected appraisal. Emotional value, commitment to the NFP, self-esteem and accountability were found to result from individual self- and reflected appraisal, which subsequently influence repeat donation intentions. The following sections will define these constructs within the context of this study.

5.2.1. Online donor appreciation

The term 'online donor appreciation' refers to any expression of gratitude (acknowledgement or recognition) made by a NFP to individuals subsequent to making a donation using online platforms. Donor acknowledgement is private communication between a NFP and donor, while recognition is public communication of an individual's donation. Study Two will examine donor acknowledgement through email due to the high usage of email platforms for communication (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011) and donor recognition via SNSs. Specifically, donor recognition occurs by providing donors with a 'badge' to share on their Facebook page that communicates a recent donation. The act of sharing a virtual badge to one's Facebook page was chosen as Chell and Mortimer (2014) found donors to prefer this over other forms of online donor recognition, such as twibbons.

5.2.2. Self-appraisal and reflected appraisal

A core component of identity verification involves the appraisal of identity-related actions; both through self-appraisal and reflected appraisal (Stets & Carter, 2011). Self-appraisal refers to an individual's personal evaluation of their actions, while reflected appraisal is based on how an individual perceives others to have evaluated their actions (Laverie et al., 2002). There are two pieces of information important to informing both self- and reflected appraisal; the action and the identity standards to which the action is evaluated against. Personal and role identities hold a set of expectations and meanings that guide appropriate behaviour (Thoits, 2012). Individuals work towards verifying an identity by performing actions consistent with the identity standard meanings.

From a range of potential roles or personal traits, each person chooses a subset to base their self-description and evaluation on (Forster & Schwartz, 1994). Although some respondents in qualitative study one self-identified through their donor role identity (i.e. volunteer, blood donor), it was more common for individuals to reflect on an act of donation reinforcing a personal identity; that is a moral identity (i.e. being generous and kind) or as a supporter of a particular NFP. One's moral identity is described by Stets and Carter (2011, p.197) as a "*general or global characteristic*" and is an enduring individual trait than a 'NFP supporter' identity which is a situational state that is contextually dependent (i.e. specific to the act of donation). The 3M Model or motivation and personality (Mowen, 2000) proposes individual characteristics can be arranged within a four-level hierarchy. A moral identity would be considered a *compound trait* that is an enduring disposition resulting from cultural learnings, while supporting a particular NFP would represent a surface trait, the most context specific dispositions to behave (Bone & Mowen, 2006). As an enduring, cross-situational trait is not as easily influenced by external sources (such as online donor appreciation) as surface traits (Taylor, Ferguson, & Ellen, 2015), this research will focus on an individual's self- and reflected appraisal of a 'NFP supporter identity'.

5.2.3. Marketing outcomes

Four outcomes were identified in Study One that both resulted from an identity confirming or disconfirming self- and reflected appraisal, and found to subsequently

influence an individual's intention to donate again. These are emotional value, affective commitment, self-esteem and accountability.

Emotional Value

Customer value is argued to extend beyond simple economic benefits, where it is apparent that individual donors are likely motivated by multiple types of value simultaneously (Bennett, 2003; Bekkers & Wiepking, 2007); this approach is termed 'experiential customer value'. Although exact terminology differs between authors, the multi-dimensionality and context specific nature has resulted in multiple conceptualisations of experiential customer value (Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Holbrook, 2006; Russell-Bennett et al., 2009); all of which emotional value is a common dimension.

Within the context of donation, McGrath (1997) presents a framework of donor value; defined as the exchange benefits that create donor satisfaction and motivates continued giving. The framework consists of cause value, which depends on the extent to which the charity carries out their mission (e.g. protecting children from abuse), and service value, which covers the actions a charity performs specifically for the donor such as providing donor appreciation (McGrath, 1997). Such service value is argued to provide an emotional and social utility to the donor that plays an important role in encouraging donation behaviour (Gipp et al., 2008; Chell & Mortimer, 2014). Similarly, Bénabou and Tirole (2006) argue that donors receive a positive emotional utility subsequent to making a donation. Emotional value refers to a positive utility derived from the affective states that a product, or in this case a behaviour, generates or arouses (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Russell-Bennett et al., 2009; Ferguson et al., 2012). Alternatively, the term 'helper's high' has also been used to describe the surge of self-gratifying positive emotion that individuals may experience subsequent to making a donation (Bennett, 2007).

Affective commitment

Commitment is important when evaluating donor relationships with a NFP (Sargeant & Jay, 2004a; Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005; Sargeant et al., 2006; Waters, 2008). Defined as an enduring desire or intention to maintain a valued relationship (Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2007b), commitment is conceptualised as an

attitudinal, rather than behavioural, construct (Becker, 1960). Some authors propose that commitment is a multi-dimensional construct. Within an organisational context, Allen and Meyer (1990) presented commitment as consisting of three forms; affective, normative and continuance. Affective commitment describes an individual's emotional attachment to an organisation such that identification with and involvement in an organisation is stronger; continuance commitment acknowledges the costs associated with leaving the organization; and normative commitment refers to feelings of obligation to stay with an organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

More recently, Sargeant and Woodliffe (2007a) identified two distinct forms of commitment within the context of regular monetary giving; active and passive. Clear parallels are evident between the two conceptualisations. Similar to Allen and Meyer's notion of affective commitment, active commitment refers to a donor's sincere passion for the cause. Thus donors are motivated to maintain a relationship because of feelings of attachment (Lacey, 2007). In contrast, donors with passive commitment are indifferent towards the cause and work of the organisation; continuing support due to feelings of obligation or haven't got around to cancelling (Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2007a). Of importance to this research is affective commitment; identified in Study One as an important outcome of donor appraisal, and subsequent predictor of repeat donation activity, due to reported feelings of attachment to a NFP.

Self-esteem

Individuals are motivated to maintain a positive identity, around which self-esteem is established. The concept of self-esteem reflects an overall evaluation of one's self-concept (Tafarodi & Swann, 2001), and is often understood according to the intrinsic and instrumental value placed on the self (Tafarodi & Swann, 2001; Tafarodi & Milne, 2002). Intrinsic value refers to qualities of a person or 'goodness' (characterological worth), while instrumental value is based on a person's ability to do something (personal competence). Similarly, Stets and Burke (2014) argued self-esteem reflections are based on perceived self-worth, self-efficacy (e.g. ability to make a difference to the intended cause) and authenticity. In the qualitative study one, respondents made reference to increased feelings of worth or positive regard for oneself as a result of a positive appraisal. Therefore, it was decided that this study would focus on the self-worth dimension of self-esteem. One's feelings of

self-worth, or self-liking (Tafarodi & Swann, 2001), reflects the degree to which an individual feels positive about themselves; that they are a good and valuable person (Stets & Burke, 2014).

Accountability

A large part of the available literature on accountability is conceptual, focusing on the meaning of the concept itself. Most prior empirical research has focused on accountability from the viewpoint of organisational business transparency, autonomous public bodies, and governance (Brandsma & Schillemans, 2013). In these instances, observers identify deficits in systems of accountability, such as accounting and performance appraisal systems (Hall & Ferris, 2011). Subsequently, individual-level accountability is a construct most often examined within an employee context (Mitchell, Hopper, Daniels, Falvy, & Ferris, 1998; Royle & Hall, 2012; Laird, Harvey, & Lancaster, 2015). Frink and Klimoski (2004) advocated a 'phenomenological' view of individual accountability, emphasising its subjective and internal nature. Similar to other scholars, this research adopts the term 'felt accountability' (Cummings & Anton, 1990).

Conceptually different to Lee et al.'s (1999) notion of personal norm, which refers to individuals' feelings of personal obligation to donate, felt accountability within the context of this study is defined as the implicit or explicit expectation that one may need to justify their decisions and actions, with the potential to receive positive feedback or negative sanctions based on the evaluation others make (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999; Royle & Hall, 2012). This view concerns the interpersonal context and focuses on persons in two distinct roles; (1) the focal person (i.e. the agent) whose behaviour is subject to evaluation by another, and (2) some person or persons (i.e. the audience) having the opportunity to observe and evaluate the focal person (Cummings & Anton, 1990; Frink & Klimoski, 2004). For this study, the 'agent' refers to the donor, and the 'audience' refers to those individuals within a donor's Facebook network.

Intention to donate

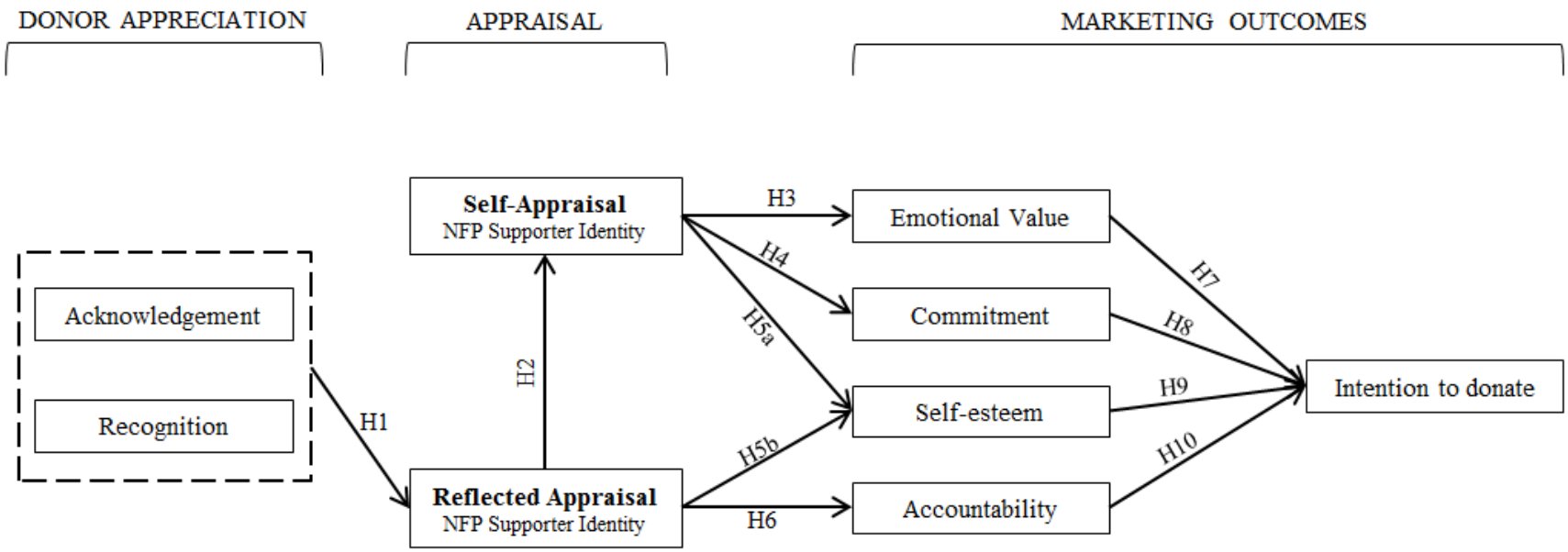
The most widely used measure to understand and evaluate the complexity of donation behaviour is an individual's intention to donate (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998; Armitage & Conner, 2001; Merchant et al., 2010; Verhaert & Van de Poel, 2011; Winterich et

al., 2013). Several behavioural models specify that the most proximal determinant of behaviour is an individual's intention to engage in that behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1975, 1980; Sheppard et al., 1988; Ajzen, 1991; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Intention is a motivation force, defined by Harrison (1995, p.373) as "*the strength of one's conscious plans to take part in*" donation activities. The more one intends to engage in donation behaviour, the more likely it will be performed. The use of behavioural intentions as a determinant of donation behaviour has received widespread empirical support for the donation of time (Harrison, 1995; Warburton & Terry, 2000; Barraza, 2011), money (Smith & McSweeney, 2007; Knowles, Hyde, & White, 2012), and blood (Ferguson, 1996; Godin, Conner, Sheeran, Belanger-Gravel, & Germain, 2007; Masser et al., 2009). Therefore this research will use donors' self-reported intentions to donate to evaluate the impact of online appreciation on continued donation behaviour.

5.3. Hypothesis Development for RQ1 Model

Based on the qualitative findings of Study One, identity theory and prior research, the theoretical model proposed in Figure 5.1 was developed to test hypothesised relationships between online donor appreciation, individual appraisal and marketing outcomes within the context of donation. It is important to note that the hypothesised model varies slightly to the qualitative conceptual model. The method used did not allow for the relationship between acknowledgement and self-appraisal to be tested, as all respondents received acknowledgement in the form of a scenario. The following sections will provide a rationale for hypothesis development.

Figure 5.1 Proposed Model for RQ1



5.3.1. Online donor appreciation and reflected appraisal

In line with the assumptions of reinforcement theory (Shields, 2007) and operant conditioning (Staddon & Cerutti, 2003), donor appreciation will increase the likelihood of a donor continuing a donation behaviour if it is viewed as positive reinforcement. Acknowledgement through email and recognition through SNSs are two forms of online donor appreciation that vary by the degree of visibility and opportunity for feedback. A thank-you email (i.e. acknowledgement) involves one-to-one communication between a NFP and a donor, and is therefore relatively private in nature. On the other hand, donor recognition through SNSs involves one-to-one-to-many communication. A NFP provides a virtual badge to a donor, who then chooses to share the badge with their social network; thus making the act of donation more visible to others.

Prior research has attributed weak effects of actual appraisals of others on reflected appraisals due to communication barriers that prevent receiving direct feedback from socially significant others (Felson, 1985). Given the higher visibility of donation behaviour, SNSs provide a naturalistic and socially significant context in which to receive feedback and validation from others. The audience on SNSs often consists of others with strong social ties to the individual, providing a greater means for actual feedback (as opposed to imagined feedback) that will inform an individual's reflected appraisal (Winterich et al., 2013). This is important, as prior research has demonstrated that when real feedback is received, the accuracy of individual reflected appraisals is improved (Felson, 1985; Stets & Carter, 2011). In the instance that such real feedback is positive (i.e. likes on a post, supportive comments) this is evidence that people saw the post (e.g. about donating to a particular NFP) and are indicating approval of it (Oleldorf-Hirsch & Sundar, 2015); thus resulting in a more positive reflected appraisal as a supporter of the NFP. Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

> *H1: Individual reflected appraisal as a NFP supporter will be more positive when recognition is received than acknowledgement*

5.3.2. Self-appraisal and reflected appraisal

As identified previously, reflected appraisals are a reflexive image of the self, based on an individual's interpretation of how one is viewed by others in a given identity, while self-appraisals are one's own self-views of a given identity (Felson, 1985). It has been well-established in identity theory that reflected appraisals are considered to be an influential component in forming self-appraisals (Laverie et al., 2002; Bouchey & Harter, 2006; Stets & Carter, 2011; Asencio, 2013). Cooley (1902) first introduced the '*looking glass self'* as a process by which people internalise significant others' opinions to form self-views. Mead (1934) further elaborated that it is not just specific people whose perceptions influence the self-concept but rather how the individual is perceived in general by others. Using identity theory, empirical research has since demonstrated a direct positive relationship between reflected appraisal and self-appraisal in a number of contexts including academic self-concept of school children (Hergovich, Sirsch, & Felinger, 2002; Bouchey & Harter, 2006), athlete identities (Laverie et al., 2002), and adolescent drug use (Richard, Trevino, Baker, & Valdez, 2010).

When an action is performed and people respond to it, reflected appraisals are formed based on the self's interpretation of the responses from others (Asencio, 2011). When actual appraisals of others are not clear during this reflexive process, Felson (1985) suggests the possibility of projection in which the individual projects their own self-view of the behaviour as the perceived view of others; thus self-appraisal influences reflected appraisals. However, this has not been tested empirically. Furthermore, the influence of reflected appraisal on self-appraisals may vary depending on the type of identity that is activated. In a study of school children, Felson (1985) found reflected appraisals to be a much more influential predictor of self-views for identities that were subjective to others' input (e.g. attractiveness) than identities with an objective measure of accomplishment (e.g. academic achievement). The NFP supporter identity contains both objective and subjective measures of achievement. For example, donating money to a charity does indeed provide support to that charity (objective measure) but whether that action alone results in the individual adopting the identity as a supporter of that particular charity is subjective to the view of others and self. This

demonstrates the importance of reflected appraisals in the formation of self-views. Therefore the following hypothesis is presented:

> *H2: Reflected appraisals from others will have a positive relationship with the self-appraisal for the NFP supporter identity*

5.3.3. Self-appraisal and emotional value

Several authors have found that receiving acknowledgement bolsters the positive emotions experienced by donors and alleviates any negative emotions (Bennett, 2007; Merchant et al., 2010). Within the hypothesised model, this effect occurs through an individual's self-appraisal. Self-verification theory assumes individuals desire to confirm self-views (Stets & Cast, 2007). Smith and Ellsworth (1985) demonstrate individual identity self-appraisal is the most proximal antecedent of emotion; where identity confirmation produces a positive emotional utility (i.e. emotional value) and identity disconfirmation produces negative emotion. Laverie et al. (2002) identified pride and shame as two specific emotions that can result from individual self-appraisal (Laverie & McDonald, 2007). When an individual perceives a match between identity standards and their own actions, this makes the individual feel good (Stets & Carter, 2011). Therefore, the following hypothesis is presented:

> *H3: Donors with a more positive self-appraisal will report higher emotional value*

5.3.4. Self-appraisal and affective commitment

Within donation literature, donors' commitment is subject to the way in which a NFP communicates with their donors. Bennett (2006) found donors were more likely to be committed to a charity if they received acknowledgement for a donation (Waters, 2011). Similarly, communication that informs donors about how their donation will be used to help has been found to increase donor commitment (O'Neil, 2009). According to the qualitative findings in Study One, such communication (i.e. acknowledgement) confirms that the donation was a worthwhile use of resources; resulting in a positive self-appraisal as a supporter of the NFP. This, in turn, was found to improve the donor-NFP relationship increasing commitment to the NFP. Sargeant & Woodliffe (2007) found donors who expressed higher satisfaction with the quality of service delivered

by a NFP to express higher levels of commitment. Just as brand commitment has been shown to be influenced by product satisfaction, a positive evaluation of a purchase (Ercis, Unal, Candan, & Yildirim, 2012), it is hypothesised that a positive self-appraisal (positive evaluation of an action) will predict commitment to a NFP:

H4: Donors with a more positive self-appraisal will report higher affective commitment

5.3.5. Self-appraisal, reflected appraisal and self-esteem

Receiving donor appreciation has been found to reinforce donor's sense of self-worth (Bennett, 2007). Within an identity theory framework, identity verification is considered a source of self-esteem (Cast & Burke, 2002; Swanson et al., 2007); to the extent that when an identity is confirmed (favourable self- and reflected appraisal is achieved) an increased feeling of self-worth and efficacy is generated, while identity disconfirmation decreases overall self-esteem (Laverie & McDonald, 2007; Asencio, 2013). The self-worth component of self-esteem is underpinned by individuals' desire to see them self favourably, and, as such, individuals behave in a manner that maintains or enhances their positive self-view (Tafarodi et al., 2002). In relation to reflected appraisal, Stets & Burke (2014) argue that identities (e.g. NFP supporter) that are viewed positively in society would increase feelings of self-worth. Many theorists have argued that positive reflected appraisals (based on the feedback from others) contribute to positive feelings of self-esteem (Stice, 1998; Schimel et al., 2001). Similarly, receiving positive feedback on a social network profile has been found to enhance self-esteem (Valkenburg, Peter, & Schouten, 2006). Thus, self-esteem is not only derived intrinsically (i.e. self-appraisal), but is also maintained by others perceived agreement with one's view of self (Pyszczynski, Greenberg, Solomon, Arndt, & Schimel, 2004). Consequently it is hypothesised that a donor's self-appraisal and reflected appraisal will influence overall self-esteem:

H5a: Donors with a more positive self-appraisal will report higher self-esteem

H5b: Donors with a more positive reflected appraisal will report higher self-esteem

5.3.6. Reflected appraisal and accountability

A positive reflected appraisal indicates that an individual believes others perceive their actions as consistent with relevant behavioural standards. Reflected appraisals are informed by either real (explicit) or imagined (implicit) feedback from others (Felson, 1985). In the context of SNSs, such real feedback is provided by one's network in the form of likes and comments on a post, and is evidence that others are aware of one's actions (e.g. donation). In Study One, having others provide real feedback in response to sharing donation activity on SNSs, made respondents feel accountable to continue donating. According to the theory of impression management, individuals are internally driven to create a favourable social image from the outcome of their behaviour (Wang & Stefanone, 2013). Felt accountability occurred due to the anticipation that they would be viewed negatively or inconsistent with a desired image by others as a result of disclosing donation activity but not repeating the behaviour (e.g. fake or insincere in their support for a NFP).

Sharing donor recognition on SNSs acts as a public declaration of support to a particular cause or NFP, and receiving real feedback is evidence that others are aware of this commitment. When individuals commit or pledge to perform a particular behaviour, this increases the likelihood of its actual performance because they feel pressure to act consistently (Bator & Cialdini, 2000; Kotler & Lee, 2008; Mason, 2013); especially when the declaration of support is public, such as in SNSs (Cotterill et al., 2013). As Cialdini (2001) explains, when an individual makes a choice, they will experience personal and social pressures to behave consistently with that choice. A positive reflected appraisal is an indication that others view an individual in terms of a particular identity (e.g. NFP supporter). Therefore the individual feels accountable to repeat the behaviour in order to maintain the desired image. Based on this argument, the following hypothesis is presented:

> *H6: Donors with a more positive reflected appraisal will report higher perceived accountability*

5.3.7. Emotional value and intentions to donate

Emotional value has been well established in commercial literature as an important driver of purchase intention and behaviour (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Holbrook,

2006). For instance, Senic and Marinkovic (2014) found emotional value to drive brand attitudinal loyalty. In relation to breast screening behaviour, Zainuddin, Russell-Bennett, and Previte (2013) reported emotional value to influence behavioural intentions through satisfaction with the service. Within this study emotional value, alternatively termed 'helper's high' (Bennett, 2007), refers to the surge of self-gratifying positive emotion that individuals experience subsequent to making a donation. Several authors have demonstrated that internal emotional gratification is a primary reason for continued donations (Sargeant & Jay, 2004a; Mayo & Tinsley, 2009). In particular, emotional value (or benevolence) has been found to be a stronger predictor of donor intentions than pure altruism (Ferguson et al., 2008; Chell & Mortimer, 2014). Donors are therefore more likely to repeat actions that evoke positive emotions (such as a sense of fulfilment) in order to re-experience the positive feelings (Merchant et al., 2010). Consequently, the following hypothesis was put forward:

H7: Donors with higher emotional value will have higher intentions to donate

5.3.8. Affective commitment and intentions to donate

Commitment, defined as an enduring desire or intention to maintain a valued relationship (Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2007b), has been found to enhance feelings of identification with an organisation, customer retention (Garbarino & Johnson, 1999) and favourable purchase intentions (Swanson et al., 2007). Within the context of donation, the important role of commitment in predicting donation behaviour has also been well documented (Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2007a; Bani & Strepparava, 2011; Waters, 2011). Commitment to a NFP highlights a donor's belief that the use of resources (e.g. time, money or blood) required for maintaining a relationship with a NFP is worthwhile (Waters, 2008). Just as individuals committed to a particular brand exhibit repeat purchase behaviour of that brand (Ercis et al., 2012), donors who are more committed to a NFP are more likely to donate again to that NFP. Several authors have identified a positive direct relationship between a donor's commitment to a NFP and intention to donate (Sargeant et al., 2006; Merchant, Ford, & Rose, 2011; Ko, Rhee, Kim, & Kim, 2014). Sargeant and Lee (2004) further suggest that commitment to a NFP is one of the most critical predictors of intentions to donate (Waters, 2008). As a result, it is proposed that a donor's affective commitment towards a NFP will influence the intentions to donate again to that NFP:

H8: Donors with higher affective commitment will have higher intentions to donate

5.3.9. Self-esteem and intentions to donate

Increased feelings of self-esteem (or self-worth), resulting from positive appraisals, can influence behavioural decisions; both indirectly and directly. For instance, Bock, Zmud, Kim, and Lee (2005) found sense of self-worth to indirectly influence intention to share knowledge through attitudes, while Lee and Jang (2010) identified a direct relationship between higher self-esteem and greater likelihood of contributing knowledge to an open information repository. Similarly, Thompson and Bono (1993) found pride and self-esteem to be a significant motivation for volunteer firefighters to continue in their role, yet Laverie and McDonald (2007) found pride to indirectly influence volunteer frequency through identity importance (i.e. how important the activity of volunteering is to respondents). Further, Pan, Qin, and Gao (2014) demonstrated a positive relationship between organisational-based self-esteem and positive organisational behaviour (e.g. initiative and performance). In line with self-enhancement theory (Jones, 1973), individuals generally seek to increase or maintain their self-worth (Rosenberg, Schooler, Schoenbach, & Rosenberg, 1995; Valkenburg et al., 2006; Wilcox & Stephen, 2013). Alternatively, self-consistency theory suggests that individuals have a tendency to behave in ways that is consistent with self-evaluations (Korman, 1976). Therefore, performing self-enhancing behaviours (e.g. donation) is consistent when self-esteem is high (positive self-image), and subsequently more likely to be repeated (Somers & Lefkowitz, 1983; Lee & Jang, 2010). As a result, the following hypothesis is presented:

H9: Donors with higher self-esteem will have higher intentions to donate

5.3.10. Accountability and intentions to donate

It is well established in the literature that individuals who make a pledge or commitment to behave in a certain way, feel pressure to behave consistently with the commitment, and thus more likely to perform the behaviour (Bator & Cialdini, 2000). Within Study One, such pressure to behave consistently is identified as felt accountability (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999); caused by making a public declaration of support to a NFP (i.e. donor recognition virtual badge on Facebook) and having others

acknowledgement such support. Individuals are internally driven to behave in a way that is consistent with their self-image. A public declaration of support can act as a catalyst, providing the internal conviction to behave in a way consistent with a particular image (Cotterill et al., 2013). This is demonstrated by several authors, who found a publicly declared commitment to perform an action increases the likelihood of its actual performance (Bator & Cialdini, 2000; Cotterill et al., 2013; Mason, 2013). Specifically in blood donation, Ferrari, Barone, Jason, and Rose (1985) found verbal commitments to attend a blood drive over the phone increased blood donors actual attendance. More recently, Wevers, Wigboldus, van den Hurk, van Baaren, and Veldhuizen (2015) found intentions to donate to be significantly higher when donors were provided with an information sheet, implementation intentions and asked for an explicit commitment (signed agreement to donate), than the control condition who did not receive any of these treatments. However, there were no significant differences between the control condition and providing an explicit commitment alone. Therefore, the following hypothesis is presented:

> *H10: Donors with higher perceived accountability will have higher intentions to donate*

5.4. RQ2 Model Constructs

To address research question two, *why do donors choose to share (or not share) donation recognition on social networking sites,* Study One identified six factors likely to influence donors' decision to share donor recognition on SNSs. These included social norms (descriptive, injunctive and subjective) around sharing donation activity on Facebook, perceived social risk, involvement with the cause, advocacy for the NFP, self-image congruency, and tendency for self-disclosure (breadth and depth). The following sections will define these constructs within the context of this study.

5.4.1. Social norms

Individuals often consider the expectations and behaviour of others when deciding on an appropriate action. Thus, behaviour cannot be fully understood unless consideration is given to the social environment in which the behaviour is performed. From the findings in Study One, the appropriateness governing whether a person decides to share or not share donor recognition on Facebook was influenced by the social norms

of two distinct behaviours; *performing* an act of donation and *sharing* an act of donation on Facebook. However, only social norms for sharing an act of donation were investigated in Study Two because this behaviour more closely related to the dependent variable of interest; that is, intentions to share donor recognition on Facebook. This approach is consistent with previous studies where social norms and intention components of a model concern the same behaviour, e.g. social norms around recycling and intentions to recycle (Cheng et al., 2006; Alam et al., 2010).

Distinct types of social norms exist with distinct influences on behaviour (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955). There is a lack of conceptual clarity and inconsistent use of terminology in social norm research (Real & Rimal, 2007; Kenny & Hastings, 2011), with a variety of terms found in the literature (e.g. social norms, subjective norms, normative influence). This research follows the categorisation of norms presented by Kenny and Hastings (2011). This categorisation is based on a distinction between what others do (descriptive norms) and what people 'ought to' do (prescriptive norms; injunctive and subjective). Descriptive norms relate to perceptions of the behaviour prevalence (Lapinski & Rimal, 2005). The more people who perform the behaviour, the more likely an individual will engage in the behaviour. Such perceptions of what the majority does are taken as a guide to appropriate behaviour (Pool & Schwegler, 2007), particularly in novel or ambiguous contexts (e.g. sharing donor recognition on Facebook). Prescriptive norms pertain to perceived pressure to conform to the opinions and values of others that constitute approved or disapproved behaviour (Cialdini, Reno, & Kallgren, 1990), and can be further classified as either injunctive or subjective (Kenny & Hastings, 2011). Injunctive norms are based on what is socially acceptable by most people, and most closely relates to the 'ought to' connotation of prescriptive norms (Burchell et al., 2013). As articulated in the theory of planned behaviour, subjective norms are concerned with an individual's motivation to comply with the opinions of important others (e.g. friends and family) regarding socially approved behaviour (Lapinski & Rimal, 2005).

A well-documented consideration of self-presentation is that individuals accept information obtained from prior social interactions as a guide to strategically shape self-presentation efforts (Goffman, 1959; Schlenker & Weigold, 1992; Bouvier, 2012). Social norms have consistently been seen as an important determinant of an

individual's attitude and behaviour (Burchell et al., 2013). Research investigating the impact of social norms (or social influence) within a donation context has predominantly relied on applications of the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and extended models (Armitage & Conner, 2001; France et al., 2014; Kashif, Sarifuddin, & Hassan, 2015); with the types of social norms receiving mixed support in their predictive capacity (Masser et al., 2008; Veldhuizen, Ferguson, de Kort, Donders, & Atsma, 2011). For example within blood donation, Godin et al. (2007) found both subjective and descriptive norms not to significantly predict donor intentions (Masser et al., 2012) yet Bednall, Bove, Cheetham, and Murray (2013) found both to have a positive association with intentions (Lemmens et al., 2005; Park, Choi, & Joo, 2014). In a study of monetary donors, Kashif et al. (2015) identified subjective norms, but not descriptive norms, to significantly influence intentions to donate money.

Beyond applications of TPB, Sarason, Sarason, Pierce, Shearin, and Sayers (1991) found that interventions utilising social norm principles (e.g. portraying blood donation as a normative behaviour) were much more successful in stimulating behaviour than either an educational (informational) approach alone or traditional interventions used by blood donor centres. Bendapudi, Singh, and Bendapudi (1996) conceptualised social norms to moderate the relationship between charity controlled communication efforts and making a donation. Similarly, social norm theory was used to understand donors' response to promotional appeals in volunteering (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998). However, despite the clear importance given to social norms and the role of others in donation decisions, there is limited empirical research that considers social influence on the performance of other desirable behaviours that come as a result of donating (e.g. positive WOM, and disclosing donation activity on SNSs).

5.4.2. Social risk

Perceived risk has been well-researched as an important construct in understanding consumers' evaluations of products (Campbell & Goodstein, 2001). Consumer researchers define perceived risk in terms of consequences and uncertainty; perceived risk increases with the existence of possible unwanted consequences and the uncertainty around such consequences occurring (Barkworth et al., 2001). Therefore, perceived risk in relation to online self-disclosure refers to the extent that individuals

believe potential consequences will result from disclosing personal information (Loiacono, 2015).

Although there are several types of risk identified in the literature, including performance, financial, physical, psychological, social and convenience (Kaplan, Szybillo, & Jocoby, 1974; Stone & Mason, 1995), prior research has concentrated on examining the impact of information risk, or privacy concerns, on SNS self-disclosure (Loiacono, 2015). The privacy concern perspective relates to the potential risks associated with the security and accessibility of personal information, such as stalking and identity theft (Nosko et al., 2010; Cheung, Lee, & Chan, 2015), and has been found to have a negative impact of users' intention to disclose personal information (Malhotra, Kim, & Agarwal, 2004). However, relatively less research has considered the impacts of social risk on self-disclosure (Nosko et al., 2010); despite its clear importance to respondents in study one. Social risk refers to the potential loss of esteem, stigmatisation and embarrassment resulting from others negatively evaluating individual self-disclosures (Omarzu, 2000; Laroche, Nepomuceno, & Richard, 2010).

5.4.3. Cause involvement

Involvement is most often viewed in terms of 'personal relevance' of an object to an individual, based on inherent needs, values and interests (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Researchers have identified cognitive and affective aspects of involvement (Park & Young, 1986). Characterised as an enduring commitment (Charters & Pettigrew, 2006), involvement is understood by the level of intrinsic importance (cognitive aspect) and inherent interest (affective aspect) an individual perceives with a particular product or brand. Similarly, high cause involvement (Hajjat, 2003; Kim, 2014), or charity involvement (Bennett & Gabriel, 2000), occurs when donors find a cause to be personally relevant, important and interesting. Such personal relevance could be an outcome of past experience with a cause (importance based connection) or an aspect of self-concept (interest based connection), or both (Kim, 2014).

5.4.4. NFP Advocacy

It is important for organisations to understand consumer-brand relationships so to encourage brand-benefiting behaviours (Keller, 2012). It is well documented that

strong brand relationships influence consumer actions (Fournier, 1998; Becerra & Badrinarayanan, 2013) and encourage consumer-to-consumer communication (Anderson, 1998). Past research has considered positive WOM communications (Pimentel & Reynolds, 2004), or stronger forms of endorsements such as brand advocacy (Kemp et al., 2012) as outcomes of consumer-brand relationships. The term advocacy itself refers to the act of recommending or defending a person or cause (Jillapalli & Wilcox, 2010), however marketing literature often operationalises brand advocacy as analogous to positive WOM communication (Anderson, 1998; Scarpi, 2010; Kemp et al., 2012; Sahin & Baloglu, 2014). In the study by Wallace et al. (2012), individuals simply needed to 'like' a brand's Facebook page for advocacy to have occurred. However, brand advocacy is a more active engagement.

A focus on positive WOM alone underestimates the extent to which consumers try to convince or recruit others to support a brand as well (Pimentel & Reynolds, 2004). (Becerra & Badrinarayanan, 2013) described brand advocacy as one of two behaviours that represent brand evangelism; *brand adoption* represented consumers' active purchase of the brand, while *brand advocacy* reflected the active communication of brand-related experiences to and the attempt to convince others to experience the brand. In the context of donor advocacy, the qualitative results of study one suggested that a cause (to which a donation is made to support) is perceived as similar to a commercial brand. Therefore, this research adopts a similar approach where advocacy for the cause is defined in terms of two supportive behaviours; generating NFP awareness and recruiting new donors. That is, advocates not only actively communicate positive opinions about a cause, but also fervently recommend and encourage others to engage with the same cause.

5.4.5. Self-image congruity

An assessment of self-image congruity is formed by comparing the image, value and qualities of a brand or action with one's own self-concept (Sirgy & Su, 2000). Self-image congruency affects motivations and behaviours when a product image is consistent or inconsistent with a consumer's self-image (Kourouthanassis, Lekakos, & Gerakis, 2015). One's self-concept is considered multi-dimensional in nature, consisting of an actual, ideal, social, and ideal social self (Sirgy, 1982). Of focus in this research is the degree of match between a donor's actual self-image and the image

associated with the act of donating time, money or blood. Actual self-image is defined as how people see themselves (i.e. this is who I am), that is, their personal identity (Sirgy & Su, 2000); which was found to be important when donors discussed their attitudes toward donating in study one.

Beyond products and brands, individuals also use symbolic cues to create a stereotypical image of someone who may, for example, visit a particular destination (Sirgy & Su, 2000), or donate to a particular charity. The relevance of self-image congruity theory has been extended to the donation of time, money and blood (Randle & Dolnicar, 2011; Bachman, Backman, & Norman, 2014). Beerli, Diaz, and Martin (2004) found that the degree of volunteer self-congruence influenced the type of NFP individuals volunteered their time. Similarly, people often prefer to donate to charities with symbolic meanings and imagery congruent with how they see themselves (Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2007b; Bennett, 2013). Further, Emens et al. (2014) found high self-image congruity with a donor image to be positively associated with a donor's motivation, ability and opportunity to make a donation. The greater the match between the donor image and the individual's self-concept, the more likely the individual will have a favourable attitude towards donating.

5.4.6. Tendency for self-disclosure (breadth and depth)

Individual self-disclosure has been examined extensively both as an outcome or action (Hollenbaugh & Ferris, 2014; Chen & Sharma, 2015), and as an individual trait (Cozby, 1973; Christofides et al., 2009). Prior research has found gender, extroversion, privacy concerns and motivational aspects to significantly predict individuals' engagement in online self-disclosure (Wang & Stefanone, 2013). Several motivations have been identified for self-disclosing information on blogs (Lee et al., 2008) and Facebook (Waters & Ackerman, 2011); including self-presentation, relationship management, and information storage and sharing. While self-disclosure is an important component to the continuous growth of SNSs (Chen & Sharma, 2015), the extent to which individuals self-disclose on such platforms varies (Tow, Dell, & Venable, 2010). Thus, a second line of research examines the extent of self-disclosure at an individual-trait level.

Tendency for self-disclosure refers to the general likelihood or pre-disposition of an individual to disclose personal information on SNSs (Moon, 2000; Christofides et al., 2009; Trepte & Reinecke, 2013). There are several dimensions of self-disclosure that vary between individuals; these include breadth, depth, duration, and content (Cozby, 1973; Omarzu, 2000). For this study, a general tendency for self-disclosure was represented by the breadth and depth of self-disclosure on SNSs. Individuals demonstrate greater breadth of self-disclosure by discussing a wide variety of topics, while depth of self-disclosure is characterised by the quality and intimacy of the details disclosed (Moon, 2000; Hollenbaugh & Ferris, 2014).

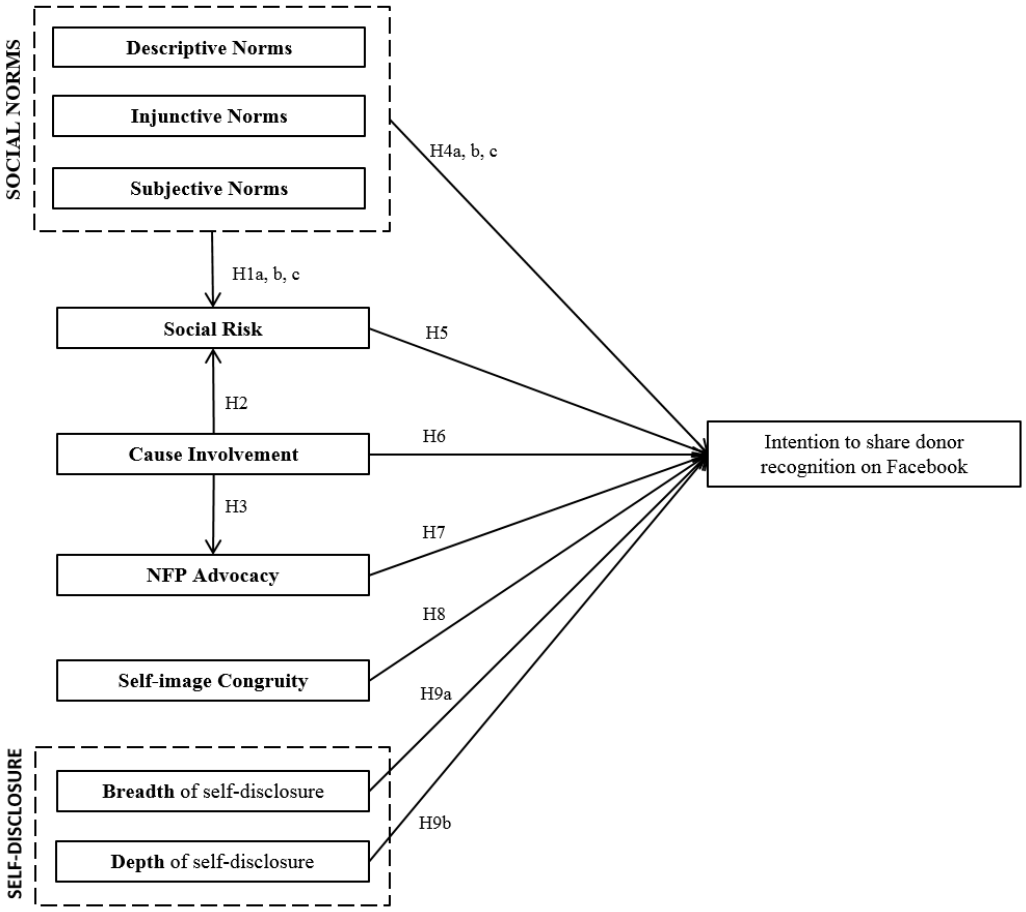
5.4.7. Intention to share donor recognition

Unlike other forms of online donor recognition, such as listing donor names on a website, the act of sharing a badge on Facebook involves a decision and action by the donor. As stated previously, sharing donor recognition on Facebook is a means for disclosing donation activity but is initiated by the NFP, and is therefore considered a form of firm-generated online WOM (Godes & Mayzlin, 2009). Specifically, a NFP would email the donor the badge with a link to share it directly to their personal Facebook profile. As RQ2 aimed to identify what motivates and deters donors from sharing donor recognition on Facebook, and intention is noted as the most proximal determinant of actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), intention to share donor recognition was used to evaluate donation sharing behaviour. The more one intends to share donor recognition, the more likely it will occur.

5.5. Hypothesis Development for RQ2 Model

Based on the qualitative findings of Study One, a proposed model (Figure 5.2) was developed to examine the impact of varying predictors on self-disclosure of donation activity. Specifically, the model will test hypothesised relationships between social norms, social risk, involvement, advocacy, self-image congruity and self-disclosure tendency (predictors), and intention to share donor recognition on Facebook (outcome).

Figure 5.2 Proposed Model for RQ2



5.5.1. Social norms and social risk

From the qualitative data in study one, social risk was suggested to vary depending on whether social norms around disclosing donation activity were positive or negative. Specifically, if social norms were positive (negative) perceived social risk would be lower (higher). When perceived risk is high, consumers become more wary and risk adverse, and consequently prefer familiar options to unfamiliar ones (Campbell & Goodstein, 2001). Social norms derive influential power by individuals basing decisions on the opinions and attitudes of others, thus expressing actions that diverge from social norms is often associated with social risk. Such social risk is concerned with the uncertainty around whether that decision would be accepted by others. Perceived social risk depends on whether the activity is public or private. If private, social norms are likely to exercise little influence over behaviour (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955). Donation itself is a relatively private act, where social pressure to engage in donation activities may be latent or not perceived at all (Lapinski & Rimal, 2005).

Whereas, sharing an act of donation on SNSs (via donor recognition) is characteristically a public activity given that information on these platforms is communicated to an individual's entire social network and as such attracts a degree of social risk (Wien & Olsen, 2014). Consequently individuals who perceive their actions to oppose social norms may be reluctant to express their choices or opinions to others. This gives rise to the following hypothesis:

> *H1a: Donors with more positive **descriptive** norms around sharing an act of donation on Facebook will perceive lower social risk around sharing donation activity*
>
> *H1b: Donors with more positive **injunctive** norms around sharing an act of donation on Facebook will perceive lower social risk around sharing donation activity*
>
> *H1c: Donors with more positive **subjective** norms around sharing an act of donation on Facebook will perceive lower social risk around sharing donation activity*

5.5.2. Cause involvement and social risk

The relative importance of involvement in understanding perceived risk in commercial consumption is well documented (Celsi & Olson, 1988; Chaudhuri, 2000; Laroche et al., 2010). Additional knowledge that results from high brand involvement informs purchase decisions and reduces the uncertainty and perceived risk attached to an outcome (Charters & Pettigrew, 2006; Laroche et al., 2010). What is considered a risky purchase decision to one person may not be risky to another. Similarly, the degree of social risk attached to self-disclosing donation activity on Facebook depends on their level of psychological involvement with a charity or cause. Specifically, the results from Study One suggest involvement is a risk-reducing strategy that justifies donation related sharing decisions. Highly involved donors regard a charity or cause as personally relevant and important (Bennett & Gabriel, 2000) and use additional knowledge when making judgements of the merits of engaging in public support of the charity. Having a greater understanding of the issue reduces social risk as the importance of the cause becomes more prominent in disclosure decisions. Thus, donors who regard the charity or cause as personally relevant, important, interesting

and necessary will perceive lower social risk towards sharing an act of donation on Facebook. Based on the reasoning provided the following hypothesis was presented:

> *H2: Donors with high cause involvement will perceive lower social risk around sharing donation activity*

5.5.3. Cause involvement and NFP advocacy

As previously outlined, advocacy is defined in terms of two behaviours; generating awareness of NFPs through positive WOM and recruiting new donors (Becerra & Badrinarayanan, 2013). Previous research on cause involvement proposes that highly involved individuals use knowledge of the cause to judge appropriateness of advocacy behaviours (Hajjat, 2003). Results from Study One suggested that donors who were more involved (i.e. considered the NFP interesting and important) were more inclined to recommend the NFP to others and make public displays of support for the NFP. This is supported by the literature, where a higher level of interest or importance makes highly involved individuals talk more about a brand than those less involved (Wangenheim & Bayon, 2007). Palmer, Koenig-Lewis, and Jones (2013) found a direct positive relationship between individuals' involvement and tourism advocacy. Similarly, Bennett (2009) found engaged donors more likely to participate in positive WOM for a charity. When an individual becomes connected to a brand, or in this case a cause or NFP, this connection can lead to brand advocacy (Anderson, 1998). In a recent study on brand communities over Facebook, Islam and Rahman (2016) found a direct relationship between customer involvement and WOM, but this effect was stronger when mediated by customer engagement (defined as cognitive and behavioural involvement). Therefore, as involvement may stimulate donors to engage in advocacy behaviours for the NFP they support themselves, it is hypothesised that:

> *H3: Donors with high cause involvement will more likely report higher NFP advocacy on Facebook*

5.5.4. Social norms and intention to share donor recognition

Social influence has been identified as a critical determinant of user behaviour on SNSs (Lewis, Kaufman, & Christakis, 2008; Zhou, 2011; Sanchez, Cortijo, & Javed, 2014; Cheung et al., 2015). Results from Study One suggest that users of SNSs create

and model self-disclosure related norms; creating expectations that govern interactions and what information is considered appropriate to share (Christofides et al., 2009; Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010; Emanuel et al., 2014). Thus, SNSs create an online environment where users can observe and respond to what other say and do on the platforms.

Existing research has demonstrated that social norms around disclosing particular information influence actual disclosure of that information. For instance, Cheng et al. (2006) found subjective norms around negative WOM significantly predicted intentions to engage in negative WOM. Similarly, Alam et al. (2010) found subjective norms associated with partner referral for patients with sexually transmitted infections (STIs) significantly predicted actual partner referral intentions. Within the wider field of customer loyalty, Dick and Basu (1994) theoretically modelled WOM as a direct outcome of loyalty which in turn is affected by attitudes, situational influences and social norms. Specifically in relation to an online environment, research has demonstrated social norms to positively and significantly influence engagement in online WOM (Hansen & Lee, 2013) and sharing personal information about peer relationships on Facebook (Van Gool et al., 2015). In a similar vein, it is expected that social norms around disclosing (sharing) an act of donation on Facebook will influence whether individuals subsequently disclose any information related to donation activity; particularly share firm-generated WOM in the form of donor recognition. Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

> *H4a: Donors with more positive **descriptive norms** around **sharing donation activity** on Facebook will have higher intentions to share donor recognition on Facebook*
>
> *H4b: Donors with more positive **injunctive norms** around **sharing donation activity** on Facebook will have higher intentions to share donor recognition on Facebook*
>
> *H4c: Donors with more positive **subjective norms** around **sharing donation activity** on Facebook will have higher intentions to share donor recognition on Facebook*

5.5.5. Social risk and intention to share donor recognition

From study one it was clear that SNS users weigh the risks associated with disclosing personal information on the sites. As self-disclosure is a necessary strategy for self-presentation (Varnali & Toker, 2015); social risk is perceived when actions can result in other people making associations between an individual and an undesired image, causing loss of esteem and embarrassment (Laroche et al., 2010). This was identified in study one, where some respondents expressed concern over being labelled as a 'bragger' if they shared donation activity to their Facebook page, and subsequently would avoid the behaviour. The level of perceived social risk is often dependent on the visibility of the disclosure, where public acts are more easily judged by other people and consequently carry more social risk than private acts (Campbell & Goodstein, 2001). Similarly, self-disclosure to SNSs carries more social risk than one-to-one self-disclosure given the context collapse of multiple audience groups within SNSs (Krämer & Haferkamp, 2011). The audience of self-disclosures on SNSs is poorly defined and consists of interpersonal relationships at different stages of development; close friends to total strangers (Marwick & Boyd, 2010).

Furthermore, while social risk has received limited attention in understanding online self-disclosure, high perceived social risk has been shown to influence consumer decisions in a number of contexts, including product and brand purchases (Kaplan et al., 1974; Stone & Gronhaug, 1993; Yokoyama et al., 2014), online group-buying (Chen & Lu, 2015), and healthy food consumption (Werle, Boesen-Mariani, Gavard-Perret, & Berthaud, 2012). Therefore, it is anticipated that social risk will also influence donation-related self-disclosure decisions on SNSs. To that extent, the following hypothesis is presented;

> *H5: Donors with higher perceived **social risk** around sharing donation activity on Facebook will have lower intentions to share donor recognition on Facebook*

5.5.6. Cause involvement and intention to share donor recognition

Involvement has been shown to be an important determinant within the consumption decision process (Zaichkowsky, 1985; Bennett et al., 2005). Within a charitable context, Bennett (2009) found personal involvement with donating to positively

influence an individual's propensity to give impulsively. Further, individuals with high charity involvement were more likely to purchase unconventional charity products than those with lower charity involvement (Bennett & Gabriel, 2000).

Extant research on cause involvement proposes that highly involved individuals use knowledge of the cause to judge appropriateness of advocacy behaviours (Petty et al., 1983; Hajjat, 2003), and more intensely process, consider and be receptive to NFP communications (Martin, 1998). Grau and Folse (2007) found individuals with high cause involvement tend to be more interested in participating to help the cause and, thus, are more likely to engage with marketing campaigns. Results from study one suggest that involvement not only increases donation behaviour, but such an effect can also extend to non-transactional behaviours, such as WOM and public support for the charity. This was consistent with commercial research where product involvement is a motivational determinant of positive WOM (Sundaram, Mitra, & Webster, 1998). Similarly, Bennett (2009) found engaged donors more likely to participate in positive WOM for a charity. Therefore, it is anticipated that individuals with high cause involvement would be more likely to engage in 'firm-generated' WOM activities such as sharing donor recognition;

> *H6: Donors with higher **cause involvement** will have higher intentions to share donor recognition on Facebook*

5.5.7. NFP advocacy and intention to share donor recognition

For this study, advocacy is defined as the extent to which donors are willing to actively communicate positively about a cause and encourage others to support the cause. As brand advocacy is most often viewed in terms of positive WOM engagement, research regularly examines advocacy as an outcome variable. Brand trust and satisfaction (Jillapalli & Wilcox, 2010), brand destination image (Sahin & Baloglu, 2014) and the extent to which the brand is self-expressive (Wallace et al., 2012) have all been shown to predict brand advocacy intent. Similarly within blood donation, self-efficacy (i.e. belief one could motivate others to donate), cognitive attitude (i.e. motivating others is considered good/ important) and the extent one's last experience with the blood donation organisation was positive have been shown to predict intention to recruit friends and family to be blood donors (Lemmens et al., 2008). However, qualitative

results from study one framed advocacy for the cause as a determining factor in the decision to share or not share donor recognition on Facebook. As high brand advocacy is likely to engender behaviours in support of the focal brand (Wallace et al., 2012; Becerra, 2013), it is arguable that donors with high advocacy intent for a cause are more likely to engage in cause supportive behaviours, such as firm-generated WOM, as a means to generate awareness and encourage others to donate. Therefore, the following hypothesis is presented:

> *H7: Donors who report higher **NFP advocacy** will have higher intentions to share donor recognition on Facebook*

5.5.8. Self-image congruity and intention to share donor recognition

Self-image congruity posits that a person will more favourably evaluate those products, brands or actions that most closely reflect their self-image (Sirgy & Su, 2000). The self-congruence mechanism is grounded in the theory of symbolic interaction (Solomon, 1983) which supports that products carry symbolic meaning which communicates information about the individual who uses them (Beerli et al., 2004). A positive association between self-image congruity and purchase behaviour has been confirmed empirically in a number of studies involving various products or brands (Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Yim, Chan, & Hung, 2007; Christofides et al., 2009; Breazeale & Ponder, 2013). Through the consumption process, consumers will choose products or brands that support their self-concept. The same notion applies to behaviour engagement, where higher degrees of fit between an action and an individual's self-image are more likely to result in the performance of that behaviour. This idea has only recently been applied to eWOM.

Consistent with the effect of image congruity on purchase intentions (Aaker, 1999), Kim et al. (2015) demonstrated that café customers are more likely to communicate their experience online (eWOM intentions) when a café's image relates with their own self-image. Consumers prefer to share WOM about experiences with a product or service that match their self-image. Because constructing a digital self is a primary driver of SNS usage (Zhao et al., 2008; Kim, Kim, & Nam, 2010), self-image congruity is associated with the self-expressive nature of SNSs, and therefore only certain content consistent with one's self-image is shared (Kourouthanassis et al., 2015).

Therefore it is argued that, individuals who express higher self-image congruity with the act of donation are more likely to share donor recognition on Facebook because the content is symbolically congruent with their self-image:

> *H8: Donors with higher **self-image congruity** will have higher intentions to share donor recognition on Facebook*

5.5.9. Self-disclosure tendency and intention to share donor recognition

Self-disclosure refers to the act of communicating personal information to another (Sicilia, Delgado-Ballester, & Palazon, 2015). As interpersonal relationships develop, the variety of topics (breadth) and extent of detail (depth) discussed in self-disclosures increase (Parks & Floyd, 1996). Many studies have analysed self-disclosure as end user behaviour in online environments (Chen & Sharma, 2015). For instance, Vasalou and Courvoisier (2010) found Facebook users tend to disclose more private information as site use increases. However, a general tendency to disclose information about oneself can also be a dispositional personal characteristic (Trepte & Reinecke, 2013; Sicilia et al., 2015), that is, there are differences between individuals' needs to share personal information with others. Some individuals prefer to maintain a level of personal privacy whereas as others like to share things about themselves.

An individual's psychological disposition for online self-disclosure has been shown to positively influence actual SNS usage (Trepte & Reinecke, 2013). Furthermore, after controlling for the other variables considered in the study, Christofides et al. (2009) found that an individual's general likelihood for self-disclosure accounted for 31% of the variance in actual self-disclosure on Facebook. Similarly, Lee and Ma (2012) found prior experience with sharing on social media positively influenced intention to share news on social media platforms. This study examined the likelihood of self-disclosure at an individual-trait level, as opposed to an outcome or action, within the context of SNSs. Such an approach is consistent with the results of study one which found that individuals with a low general tendency to self-disclose content on SNSs were less likely to share donor recognition than their high disclosure counterparts. Accordingly, as communicating information about oneself is inherent in self disclosure, and donor recognition reveals recent donation activity by an individual, it is likely that as an individual's tendency for self-disclosure (breadth and depth) increases so too will their

willingness to share donor recognition on Facebook. Therefore, the final hypotheses are presented:

*H9a: Donors with higher **breadth of self-disclosure** on Facebook will have higher intentions to share donor recognition on Facebook*

*H9b: Donors with higher **depth of self-disclosure** on Facebook will have higher intentions to share donor recognition on Facebook*

5.6. Conclusion

This chapter has presented two proposed models to address RQ1 and RQ2, based on the results of Study One and additional literature. The following chapter, Chapter Six, outlines the methodology of Study Two.

Chapter Six: Study Two Method

6.1. Introduction

Following model development and justification, Study Two will quantitatively investigate the research questions and test relationships within the developed models. This chapter provides a detailed outline and rationale for the methodologies used in Study Two. Specifically, Study Two involved the development and distribution of two online surveys. Study 2A quantitatively addressed RQ1, surveying a blood donor sample only, while Study 2B addressed RQ2 and RQ3 by surveying a sample of blood, time and/or money donors.

This chapter begins by discussing the overall descriptive and quantitative research design of study two (section 6.2), providing a rationale for the use of online surveys, and discussed reliability and validity considerations of survey research. As the research questions were addressed separately, the subsequent sections will outline the sampling approach and survey design for Study 2A (section 6.3 and 6.4) and Study 2B (section 6.5 and 6.6), followed by data analysis techniques (section 6.7) and ethical considerations of study two (section 6.8).

6.2. Overall Research Design of Study Two

Exploratory qualitative research is often conducted with the expectation that subsequent research will be required to provide conclusive evidence (Malhotra et al., 2006). Descriptive research is used to numerically describe population characteristics (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). A descriptive quantitative research design was deemed most appropriate given the objective of Study Two is to identify outcomes (RQ1) and predictors (RQ2) of online donor appreciation, as well as the impact of donation category (RQ3). Quantitative research is confirmatory and objective in nature, and utilises structured data collection techniques that quantify data to elicit numerical representations of a phenomenon of interest (Zikmund et al., 2011).

Within a mixed-methods research design, quantitative research methods allow for the generalisability of qualitative results to be established, given the relative objectivity of the researcher, the larger sample size, and validity of measures used (Zikmund et al.,

2010). Further, conducting quantitative research to validate qualitative findings is consistent with the philosophical approach of post-positivism adopted in this research; to triangulate results and capture as much reality as possible (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009; Creswell, 2011). Therefore, a quantitative cross-sectional research design, using numerical measures of observation, is appropriate for Study Two in order to maintain overall methodological consistency.

Cross-sectional survey research is most consistent with a descriptive approach due to its efficient, inexpensive and accurate means of assessing information about a population (Neuman, 2011). A cross-sectional design involves collecting data from one sample of respondents from the target population only once, and is appropriate for the current study given the research objective is not to measure changes in donors over time. The primary quantitative data collection method used in this study is online survey questionnaire, involving a self-report approach, in order to empirically test the hypothesised relationships developed in Chapter 5. The following sections will provide a rationale for using online survey questionnaires (section 6.2.1) and the reliability and validity considerations of a quantitative research design (section 6.2.2).

6.2.1. Online survey questionnaires

Survey research is the most commonly used quantitative method for collecting primary data (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008). Importantly, the quantity of information required for analysis lead to survey research being the most appropriate method for measuring model variables (Malhotra et al., 2006). The rapid growth and adoption of the Internet has created a new environment for conducting survey research (Sue & Ritter, 2007), and as such, both surveys were administered online via email. On account of the online context of the research, this method was further selected as the most appropriate data collection technique due to the general quick response time of online questionnaires, the ability to send reminders to complete the survey at no additional cost, and the speed and ease of distribution (Wilson & Laskey, 2003; Zikmund et al., 2010; Robson, 2011). This was an important consideration, as the use of online surveys will not limit the researcher's ability to collect data from a geographically dispersed population (i.e. Australia-wide; Sue & Ritter, 2007). Further rationale supporting the selection of online questionnaires is the ability to set-up the survey in such a way that ensures all questions are answered before proceeding to the next section (Evans & Mathur, 2005).

This feature eliminated item non-response error (Malhotra et al., 2006). The administrative burden of collecting and inputting data, as well as input error, was also minimised as completed questionnaire data was automatically stored in an electronic database ready for analysis (Wilson & Laskey, 2003). Finally, online survey questionnaires are a common method used within the research domains of donation behaviour (Winterich et al., 2013; Chell & Mortimer, 2014) and SNS disclosure (Oh & Syn, 2015; Shao & Ross, 2015).

6.2.2. Reliability and validity

A key component of objective research is the development of a well-constructed questionnaire demonstrating reliability and validity (Malhotra et al., 2006). To avoid construct development error, construct measures used in both survey questionnaires were drawn from previously tested scales that have proven reliability and validity.

Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which a measurement tool yields consistent and reproducible results when repeated measures are made (Malhotra et al., 2006). Ensuring reliability of research is an important aspect of competent enquiry as it will assist in avoiding measurement errors (Mitchell, 1996). Due to time constraints of this research program, internal consistency was used to assess reliability over other approaches (i.e. test-retest and alternate form) as this method only requires one round of data collection (Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003; Malhotra et al., 2006). The internal consistency reliability approach involves examining Cronbach's alpha scores and the item-to-total correlations. Cronbach's alpha is a measure for testing the extent to which multiple indicators for a latent construct belong together (Allen & Bennett, 2010). Internal reliability is evident when the coefficient alphas are above the minimum suggested threshold of 0.7 (Cronbach, 1951; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). In addition, item-to-total correlations reflect the extent to which any one item is correlated with the remaining items in a set of items measuring a single latent construct. An item with an item-to-total correlation of less than .35 is usually removed as it is deemed to be less reliable (Netemeyer, et al., 2003). When these items are removed, an increase in Cronbach's alpha is often achieved. Reliability results for both surveys are discussed in Chapter Seven.

Validity

Internal validity is the extent to which a measure accurately reflects the construct under investigation (Malhotra, et al., 2006; Hair, et al., 2010; Neuman, 2011). Three types of validity were tested in Study Two: construct, convergent and discriminant validity. Construct validity is important for multi-item measures and is the degree to which a set of items actually represent and measure the theoretical construct they are designed to measure (Malhotra et al., 2006). Threats to construct validity occur when researchers inadequately define and measure variables under investigation (Creswell, 2003). To examine construct validity of the questionnaires employed in this study, a factor analysis (FA) using SPSS and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using AMOS were conducted as they are considered valuable tools for evaluating pre-specified measurement models (Netemeyer et al., 2003; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Allen & Bennett, 2010). While an FA is used to explore the factor structure that best represents the data, CFA is used to provide a confirmatory test of a measurement theory; how measured variables represent a latent construct (Hair et al., 2010).

Convergent validity examines whether the observed items of each construct are strongly related to each other, while discriminant validity tests whether concepts or measurements that are supposed to be unrelated are actually unrelated (Malhotra, 2006). For Study Two, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), which is the squared correlation score, was calculated for all constructs. The AVE is a summary measure of convergence among a set of items representing a latent construct, requiring AVE scores above .50 to ensure convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). To achieve discriminant validity the AVE score of a latent construct must be higher than that of the squared parameter estimates between factors. If this is achieved the latent construct is deemed to have discriminant validity (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Validity results for both surveys are reported in Chapter Seven.

Common method bias

All measures were also assessed for common method bias using Harman's (1960) single-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003). Common method bias is a primary source of measurement error particularly in studies involving self-reported measures on the same scale; where the statistical

variance between variables is attributable to the measurement method used rather than to the constructs the measure represents (Bagozzi & Yi, 1991; Gorrell, Ford, Madden, Holdridge, & Eaglestone, 2011). This can be problematic for researchers, as the error produced can have a confounding influence on the validity of the results and yield potentially misleading conclusions of the hypotheses tested (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Doty & Glick, 1998).

6.3. Study 2A: Sampling Approach

Executing an appropriate sampling procedure is an important part of data collection as it affects the external validity of the study (Crano & Brewer, 2002; Kotler & Armstrong, 2008). The following sections will detail the intended target population, sampling frame and recruitment method employed for Study 2A.

6.3.1. Target population

Based on the qualitative findings, the target population for Study 2A is Australian blood donors aged between 18 and 40 who have donated blood at least once in the last 12 months and use Facebook. This definition excludes donors who donate plasma and platelets exclusively. The decision to focus on blood donors (not including donors of time and money) for RQ1 was made for three reasons. Firstly, in study one there was a lack of differences between donation types in relation to the underlying processes explaining the impact of online donor appreciation on repeat donations. Secondly, blood donation is characterised as having a high cost to the donor to participate where the higher the perceived cost the more donors want to be appreciated. Lastly, the qualitative findings suggested that positive descriptive norms exist around sharing blood donation activity on Facebook; that is, people currently share blood donation activity on SNSs more so than donations of time or money. Therefore blood donation provides a suitable context in which to quantitatively investigate RQ1.

6.3.2. Sampling frame and recruitment method

The sampling frame was the Blood Service database. The Blood Service identified eligible participants based on age (18 to 40 years of age), donation type (whole blood) and recency of last donation (within the last 12 months). Consistent with Study One, a focus on donors aged 18 to 40 years old was due to higher usage of SNSs than older

donors (Correa et al., 2010), and greater tendency to self-disclose personal information on Facebook (Nosko et al., 2010). Surveying individuals who have recently made a donation within the past year was important as participants were more likely to be familiar with the research context, and not considered lapsed by the Blood Service. Exclusion criteria included donors who were Blood Service employees, therapeutic donors, permanently deferred donors, and donors who have participated in research within the last 6 months in line with the Blood Service Donor Contact Policy. Due to the target population being highly heterogeneous, a random sampling technique was chosen over non-probability sampling methods as it creates a more accurate and representative sample, improving external validity and generalisability of the findings (Creswell, 2003; Zikmund et al., 2010). A probability sample occurs when each individual in the target population has an equal chance of being selected (Creswell, 2003). As a standard practice for the Blood Service research, a rolling contact approach will be employed where blood donors will be contacted via email in waves until the desired sample size is achieved.

6.4. Study 2A: Scenario Based Experimental Design

Experiments are studies involving interventions beyond that required for measurement (Cooper & Schindler, 2008) and allow for causal inferences to be made (Goldberg et al., 2004). The foremost advantage of an experiment, over other methodologies, is the researcher's ability to manipulate an independent variable and observe how it affects the dependent variable (Zikmund et al., 2011). Cooper and Schindler (2008) present four types of experimental design; pre-experimental designs, true experimental designs, complex experimental designs and field experiments (see Table 6.1 for an overview of each).

Study 2A adopted a true experimental design; specifically the post-test only control group design as only one independent variable is manipulated (donor appreciation; acknowledgement (control) and recognition) with participants randomly assigned to a treatment level. Although the use of a pre-test is well established in classical research design, it is not necessary when it is possible to randomise (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Furthermore, the 'interaction of selection', a process by which participants are selected for an experiment, can be a threat to external validity. This is also overcome in the

present study by employing a random sampling technique to source respondents, coupled with randomisation into treatment levels (Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

Table 6.1 Types of Experimental Designs

	Pre-experimental	**True**	**Complex**	**Field**
Description	Either a single group of participants or multiple groups are observed after a treatment.	Studies with at least one IV that is manipulated and one DV, involve random assignment and include a control group	Extension of traditional true experimental designs	Phenomenon is studied in a natural environment
Advantages	Preparatory to true experimental designs	Reduce threats to internal validity and randomisation of assigned groups	Increased number of experimental stimuli considered simultaneously	Strong external validity
Disadvantages	Fail to control threats to internal and external validity	Lack external validity		Minimal control over extraneous variables, lack internal validity

Given that the time order of variable occurrence is an important consideration when designing an experiment, the post-test only control group experimental design consists of two parts; exposure to a treatment (*X*) followed by a measurement activity (*O*) involving an online survey questionnaire. Participant assignment to each experimental treatment level is randomised (*R*). A control group (who are not exposed to a treatment) serves as a comparison to assess the impact of the manipulation; thus any change in the dependant variable (between the control and treatment groups) is a likely function of the manipulation in the independent variable (Malhotra et al., 2006). The experimental design can be presented as:

$R \quad O_1$ (Control: Online acknowledgement)

$R \quad X_1 \quad O_1$ (X_1: Online acknowledgement and recognition)

Manipulation of independent variables occurred through the use of hypothetical elicited methods, specifically scenarios (Kim & Jang, 2014). This involved having a respondent read a hypothetical scenario and then answer a series of questions in

response to the scenario. A scenario-based experimental design was chosen over a field experiment for a number of reasons. Firstly, it enables costly and difficult manipulations to be more easily operationalised (Karande, Magnini, & Tam, 2007). Secondly, given that sharing online donor recognition (e.g. badge) on SNSs is an emerging phenomenon, this approach overcomes difficulties in a retrospective-type approach caused by individual differences in reactions to the research context and personal circumstances (Bennett, 2007); thus enhancing internal validity. However, Kim and Jang (2014) note a potential limitation of this method, whereby respondents may not have a strong enough emotional connection to situate themselves within the scenario and respond accordingly. Nevertheless, scenario-based experiments are an important methodology used in service research, especially in the field of service failure and recovery (Mattila, 2001; Karande et al., 2007; Jha, Deitz, Babakus, & Yavas, 2013; Kim & Jang, 2014). Moreover, this method has been proven in donation related research (Bennett, 2007; White & Peloza, 2009), and more specifically in manipulating donor appreciation in survey research (Merchant et al., 2010; Winterich et al., 2013).

6.5. Study 2A: Survey Design and Measurement

The technical set-up of the survey ensured that respondents could not skip questions to reduce non-response error. The survey consisted of four components; screening questions, treatment (acknowledgment or recognition), dependent measures, and finally sociodemographic questions. Prior to starting the survey, the following qualifying question was asked to identify the respondents' eligibility to participate in the survey "Do you use social media (e.g. Facebook) for your own personal use?" This screening question was in relation to respondents' social media use in general and was included to avoid uninformed responses to questions related to donor recognition on Facebook. Participants were then exposed to one of two scenarios and asked to spend time considering it. The dependent measures component of the questionnaire totalled 35 questions. For the most part, a 7-point Likert scale (anchored 1-*strongly disagree* and 7-*strongly agree*) was used due to its ability to measure opinions, beliefs and attitudes, and its common usage within the marketing research domain (Zikmund, et al., 2011). Given the decision to use a Likert response format, each item was presented as a declarative statement to which respondents provided their level of agreement.

Multi-item scales used to measure each construct consisted of at least three items to ensure minimum coverage of the construct's theoretical domain, and meet requirements for structural equation modelling to analyse the data (Hair et al., 2010). Lastly, respondent characteristics were obtained through a series of demographic and donation related questions. The following sections will provide a detailed overview of all questions included in the survey.

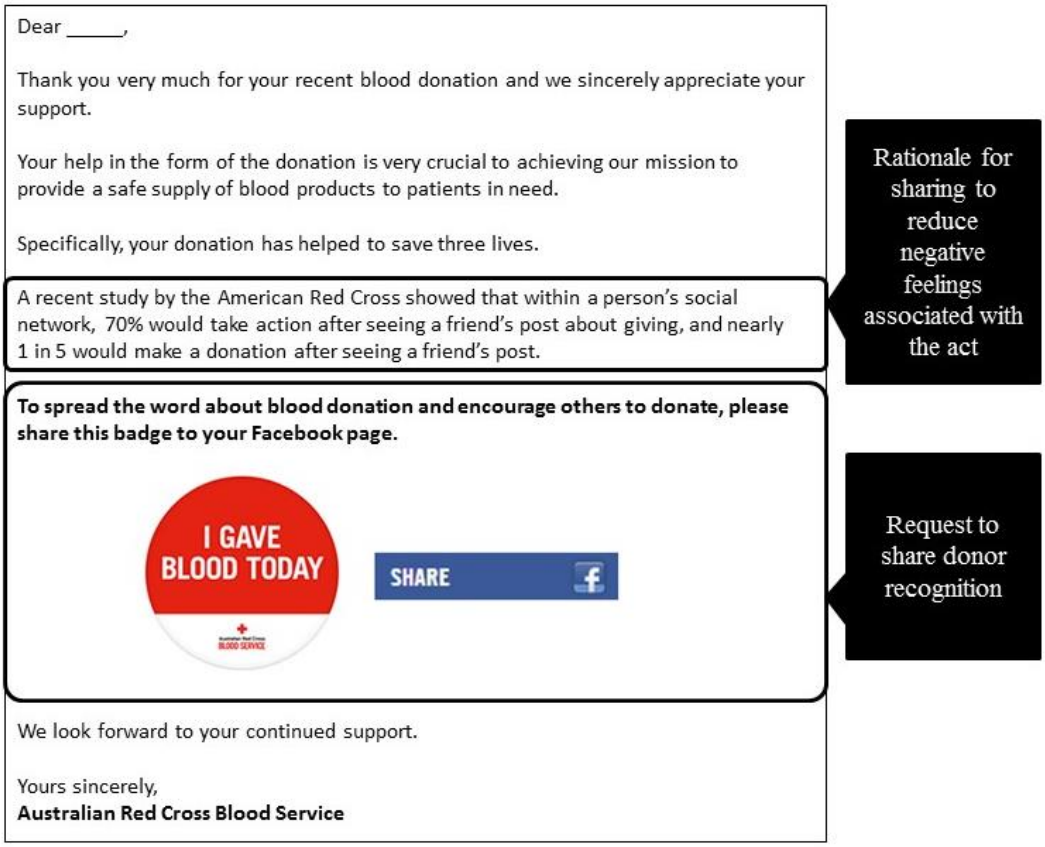
6.5.1. Donor appreciation

Online donor appreciation is the independent variable to be manipulated, consisting of two treatment levels: (1) acknowledgement, thank-you email only (control); and (2) recognition, thank-you email plus donor recognition on Facebook that receives positive feedback. Receiving no communication (i.e. no acknowledgement or recognition) was possible as a control group as sending a thank-you email is standard practice for the Blood Service, and is therefore a base level of communication that represents the control group in this study. The acknowledgement email uses a generic 'thank-you' script adapted from the script used by Merchant et al. (2010), and reflects standard Blood Service branding. The script includes the impact of the donation (i.e. your donation has saved three lives) because this was found to be important to donors in study one; enhancing donor's self-appraisal through reinforcing achievement of identity standards.

The second scenario provided participants with the same acknowledgment email, but included a few additional items (see Figure 6.1). Firstly, a paragraph was included to provide rationale behind why it would be important for a donor to share donor recognition, to reduce potential negative feelings associated with the act as identified by some respondents in study one. The rationale centres on the social impact sharing could achieve; that is, influencing others to donate. Secondly, the email includes a 'request to share' by the Blood Service, to provide further rationale for sharing, where it was requested of the donor and wasn't simply their decision, which could come across as bragging. Following the acknowledgment, the second component of scenario two informs participants that they decided to share the badge to their Facebook page. However, from the results in study one, recognition alone was not enough to vary the impact on reflected appraisal, this effect was dependent on receiving feedback from others. Therefore, participants were presented with a Facebook post that included the

badge and positive feedback from their social network (in the form of likes and comments). See Appendix C for both complete scenarios.

Figure 6.1 Recognition Scenario Email Copy



6.5.2. Self-appraisal and reflected appraisal

An identity standard contains appropriate beliefs, values and actions that if achieved, allow a person to self-identify as that particular identity (Thoits, 2012). For example, helping a NFP achieve their goals is an identity standard that is needed in order to self-identity as a supporter of that NFP. The appraisal process involves an individual evaluating their identity performance against a set of identity standards (Laverie et al., 2002). Self-appraisal is an independent personal evaluation and reflected appraisal is a subjective impression based on how a person perceives others to have evaluated their identity-related behaviour (Asencio, 2013). However, there is no consistent method used in the literature to measure self- and reflected appraisal; simple dichotomy response format (Richard et al., 2010), single item measure (Felson, 1985; Laverie et

al., 2002), and multi-indicator measures (Hergovich et al., 2002) have been used and are shown in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 Measurement Methods for Self- and Reflected Appraisal

Source	SA/ RA	Identity/Quality	Item(s)	Response Scale
Felson (1985)	SA	Attractiveness	How good looking do you think you are?	Less good looking; average looking; better looking than the class
Hergovich et al. (2002)	SA	E.g. Physical appearance, Mathematics	How would you rate yourself on the following items e.g. I am good at maths	False Mostly false Mostly true True
	RA	E.g. Physical appearance, Mathematics	How would others rate you on the following items e.g. I am good at maths	False Mostly false Mostly true True
Laverie et al. (2002)	SA	Tennis player	Use the adjective pairs below to describe your performance	Notable/ordinary Excellent/poor Spectacular/ terrible
	RA	Tennis player	Use the adjective pairs below to describe what other people say about your performance	Notable/ordinary Excellent/poor Spectacular/ terrible
Richard et al. (2010)	RA	Varied	Would the respondent's teacher describe the respondent as a (1) drug user, (2) a criminal, (3) a good student etc.	Yes/ No

Aspects that are consistent between measures of appraisal is that respondents either evaluate the identity as a single item, or evaluate traits or standards associated with a particular identity (Stets & Burke, 2014). However, none of the previous measures are directly transferable to evaluating a NFP supporter identity, particularly with a multi-item measure to improve construct validity. Sargeant and Shang's (2012) measure of donor identity membership esteem, assesses donors' individual judgement on their membership (or support) of a relative NFP. Similarly, both self- and reflected appraisal (in this study) evaluate a NFP specific donor identity. Therefore, the donor identity membership esteem measure was used as a basis to develop five statements to

represent identity standards for the personal identity of 'NFP supporter' (see Table 6.3).

Table 6.3 Self-Appraisal and Reflected Appraisal Survey Items

ORIGINAL SCALE ITEMS	ITEMS FOR CURRENT STUDY
Self-Appraisal - *Adapted from Sargeant & Shang (2012)*	
I often feel I'm not a very supportive member of STATION_NAME	I support blood donation and providing a safe supply of blood products to patients in need
I am a worthy member of STATION_NAME	I help the Blood Service achieve their goals
I feel I don't have much to offer to STATION_NAME	My contribution to the Blood Service is important to me
I am a supportive listener of STATION_NAME	I actively support the Blood Service
	I don't care about the Blood Service (R)
Reflected Appraisal - *Adapted from Sargeant & Shang (2012)*	
I often feel I'm not a very supportive member of STATION_NAME	I support blood donation and providing a safe supply of blood products to patients in need
I am a worthy member of STATION_NAME	I help the Blood Service achieve their goals
I feel I don't have much to offer to STATION_NAME	My contribution to the Blood Service is important to me
I am a supportive listener of STATION_NAME	I actively support the Blood Service
	I don't care about the Blood Service (R)

The same set of items was used to operationalise self- and reflected appraisal, however the lead in statement varied. For self-appraisal, respondents were instructed '*Please select how well **you think** each description below describes you*', and for reflected appraisal respondents were instructed '*Please select how well **people on your Facebook friends list** would think each description below describes you'*. This approach is consistent with prior studies measuring reflected appraisal which used a similar lead in question (Asencio, 2011; Asencio & Burke, 2011; Asencio, 2013). The group of 'others' in one's reflected appraisal were operationalised as those within a person's Facebook network as this is the audience that would view donor recognition shared to Facebook.

Further, Harter's scale for self-evaluation, termed *The Self-Perception Profile* (Harter, 1982; Neemann & Harter, 1986), is aimed at tapping individuals' domain-specific

judgements of their competence across a range of domains including scholastic competence and physical appearance. Wichstraum (1995) revised the response format of the self-perception profile to a Likert-scale, from which the scale then comprised positively worded statements measured against a 4-point scale, anchored 1 (describes me very poorly) and 4 (describes me very well). For this study, a Likert scale was also used. However, self- and reflected appraisal were measured on a 6-point scale, as opposed to a 4-point scale used in the revised self-perception test (Wichstrom, 1995), to increase variance in responses for analysis purposes.

6.5.3. Emotional value

Emotional value centres on the idea of a 'warm glow' (Andreoni, 1990) and is measured by the positive utility gained from the feelings or affective states that donating blood generates (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). In order to measure emotional value in blood donation, items from Nelson and Byus (2002) best reflected the positive affective states that could be achieved through donating blood as identified by respondents in study one. This scale demonstrates high internal consistency and validity, and has been adapted within the non-commercial context of breast-screening (Zainuddin et al., 2013). Similarly, the 'product' that is referred to in the original items is modified in this study to reflect the context of blood donation (see Table 6.4). The items were aggregated to form a single summated score; where 1 = low emotional value and 7 = high emotional value.

Table 6.4 Emotional Value Survey Items

ORIGINAL SCALE ITEMS	ITEMS FOR CURRENT STUDY
Adapted from Zainuddin et al. (2013)	
Having breast screens makes me feel comfortable	**Donating blood** makes me feel comfortable
Having breast screens makes me feel safe	**Donating blood** makes me feel safe
Having breast screens makes me feel happy	**Donating blood** makes me feel happy
Having breast screens makes me feel calm	**Donating blood** makes me feel calm
Having breast screens makes me feel relieved	**Donating blood** makes me feel relieved
Having breast screens makes me feel proud	**Donating blood** makes me feel proud

6.5.4. Commitment

In this study, organisational commitment relates to the affective component of commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Individuals exhibit affective commitment when they're motivated to maintain a relationship because of feelings of attachment (Merchant et al., 2010). Commitment was measured using a three-item scale (see Table 6.5) originally developed by Morgan and Hunt (1994) and later adapted to a donation context (Sargeant et al., 2006; Merchant et al., 2010).

Table 6.5 Commitment Survey Items

ORIGINAL SCALE ITEMS	ITEMS FOR CURRENT STUDY
Adapted from Sargeant et al. (2006); α=.761	
I feel a sense of belonging to **this organisation**	I feel a sense of belonging to **the Blood Service**
I care about the long term success of **this organisation**	I care about the long term success of **the Blood Service**
I would describe myself as a loyal supporter of **this organisation**	I would describe myself as a loyal supporter of **the Blood Service**

6.5.5. Self-esteem

Self-esteem refers to a person's overall evaluation of their self-concept (Stets & Burke, 2014) and for this study, is based on perceived self-worth; the degree to which individuals feel that they are good and valuable (Rosenberg et al., 1995). Items used to measure the self-worth dimension of self-esteem were sourced from the scale developed by Stets and Burke (2014) and measured on a 4-point scale, anchored 1 – strongly disagree and 4 – strongly agree (see Table 6.6). Scores were summated to form a total self-esteem score ranging from 7 to 28, with higher scores indicating high self-esteem.

Table 6.6 Self-Esteem Survey Items

ORIGINAL SCALE ITEMS	ITEMS FOR CURRENT STUDY
Adapted from Stets & Burke (2014); omega reliability =.92	
I feel I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others	I feel I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others
I feel that I have a number of good qualities	I feel that I have a number of good qualities
I take a positive attitude toward myself	I take a positive attitude toward myself
On the whole I am satisfied with myself	On the whole I am satisfied with myself
I usually feel good about myself	I usually feel good about myself
I feel I have much to offer as a person	I feel I have much to offer as a person
I have a lot of confidence in the actions I undertake in my life	I have a lot of confidence in the actions I undertake in my life

6.5.6. Accountability

Accountability refers to the potential to be evaluated by others, being answerable for decisions or actions, and the presence of some reward or sanction contingent on those evaluations (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999). A three-item scale, developed by Frink and Ferris (1998), was adapted to measure the extent to which one may be responsive to the expectations of others in regards to making a repeat donation. The reference group and action were modified to reflect to reflect blood donation and SNS focus of this study. Table 6.7 outlines the original and adapted scale items for accountability.

Table 6.7 Accountability Survey Items

ORIGINAL SCALE ITEMS	ITEMS FOR CURRENT STUDY
Adapted from Frink & Ferris (1998); *α=.91*	
I feel accountable **for my work to my team members**	I feel accountable **to my close friends to donate blood again**
I feel accountable **for my work to my team leader**	I feel accountable **to those within my Facebook friends list to donate blood again**
I feel I am accountable **for my work to those who evaluate me**	I feel accountable **to those who are important to me to donate blood again**

6.5.7. Intentions to donate

Future donation intentions were assessed using a three-item scale measured on a 7-point Likert scale, anchored 1= strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree (see Table 6.8), that increases in certainty. The scale was originally developed by Robinson, Masser, White, Hyde, and Terry (2008) and later validated by Chell and Mortimer (2014) in a blood donation context.

Table 6.8 Intentions to Donate Survey Items

ORIGINAL SCALE ITEMS	ITEMS FOR CURRENT STUDY
Sourced from Chell and Mortimer (2014); α=.90	
I would like to donate blood in the next 3 months	I would like to donate blood in the next 3 months
I intend to donate blood in the next 3 months	I intend to donate blood in the next 3 months
I will donate blood in the next 3 months	I will donate blood in the next three months

6.5.8. Demographics and donation history questions

Subsequent to model variable questions, respondents were asked to complete five demographic questions relating to age, gender, location, work status and income. These were followed by five donation history questions concerning eligibility to donate blood again and number of prior donations. This was to gather sample characteristics for analysis purposes. In particular, respondents were asked the question "*In addition to donating blood do you also donate money and/or time to any charity?*" This question was included in order to identify single and multi-donation type donors.

6.6. Study 2B: Sampling Approach

The qualitative findings of Study One identified several motivation differences between categories of donation and determinants of sharing donation activity, and more specifically donor recognition, on SNSs. Therefore the sample for Study 2B consisted of donors of blood, time and/or money.

6.6.1. Target population

The population of interest for study 2B includes individuals aged 18-40 years old who have made a voluntary donation of blood, time and/or money directed towards a NFP in the last 12 months and use Facebook. A donation of time is defined as performing an episodic formal service for a NFP without compensation during isolated (i.e. episodic volunteering) or regular occasions (i.e. shift-based volunteering). Monetary donation refers to giving a sum of money directly to a NFP without receiving a substantial benefit in return (i.e. charity auction is not included nor are regular direct-debit donations). Finally, a blood donor is defined as an individual who donates whole blood. Consistent with Study One, this study focused on donors aged 18 to 40 years old due to higher usage of SNSs than older donors (Correa et al., 2010), and greater tendency to self-disclose personal information on Facebook (Nosko et al., 2010), which is necessary for online donor recognition to be effective. Surveying individuals who have recently made a donation within the past year was important as participants were more likely to be familiar with the research context.

6.6.2. Sample recruitment method

Donors within each category of donation were recruited separately using different techniques. Blood donors and volunteers were recruited through NFPs. Collaborating with NFPs can yield valuable "usable knowledge" (Bushouse & Sowa, 2012) for practice, thus contributing to the literature and strengthening the sector simultaneously (Mason, 2013). Specifically, blood donors were accessed through the Blood Service, using the same criteria as in Study 2A sample recruitment. Volunteers were accessed through six Australian NFPs (out of 20 contacted requesting support); Australian Red Cross, The Smith Family, Salvation Army, Cancer Council QLD, Heart Foundation QLD, and Starlight Children's Foundation. However, sampling frame error could occur for the volunteer sample as, unlike blood donation, there are multiple NFP organisations in Australia that manage volunteers for a variety of causes. As the sampling frames used in this study does not accurately represent the entire volunteer population, the generalisability of conclusions drawn from the volunteer sample is restricted to donors of their respective NFP (Zikmund et al., 2011). Donors of time and blood will be identified using a probability random sampling technique, and invited to participate in the surveys by the NFPs on behalf of the researchers. This is to protect

donor privacy, as this method ensures researchers will not have access to donor names or contact details.

The researcher was unable to access monetary donors through NFPs due to the high rate of communication already received by donors, and sending out a survey would interfere with existing communication plans. Therefore, monetary donors were recruited conveniently through personal networks and a university student population within Queensland University of Technology, Business School. To avoid survey over-complication, potential monetary donors were limited to only those who have made a donation to one of three NFP categories; education and research (with sub-category 'medical research' e.g. Cancer Council), social services (with sub-category 'family services' e.g. St Vinnies), and environment (with sub-category 'animal protection and welfare' e.g. RSPCA). Based on the International Classification of Non-Profit Organisations, the chosen categories are three of the largest with a high number of NFPs within them. Examples of NFPs under each category were provided. Participants selected which category their most recent donation falls under and were directed to the appropriate survey which was tailored to the cause (medical research, family services or animal welfare) as opposed to a specific NFP.

6.6.3. Participation incentive

The literature supports the use of incentives as a method to increase survey participation (Boulianne, 2008). Therefore an incentive in the form of a donation will be offered to participants who donate time and money only; blood donors will not receive an incentive in line with standard research practices at the Blood Service. For volunteers, $2 for every completed survey (up to a total value of $150) will be donated to their respective NFP. For donors of money, respondents will be asked to nominate one of three charities of the researcher's choice (one for each category) to which they want the total donation to be made. $2 for every completed survey (up to a total value of $150) will be donated to the charity with the most nominations. Donations will be personally funded by the PhD Candidate, Kathleen Chell.

6.7. Study 2B: Survey Design and Measurement

The technical set-up of the survey ensured that respondents could not skip questions to reduce non-response error. The survey consisted of four components; screening

questions, predictor variable measures, dependent measures, and finally sociodemographic questions. An important sample criteria was use of Facebook in general. Prior to starting the survey, respondents were asked the same qualifying question as in Study 2A survey, "Do you use social media (e.g. Facebook) for your own personal use?", to ensure questions relating to sharing content on Facebook were relevant to respondents. Extent of Facebook use was not important for screening purposes as tendency for sharing (i.e. self-disclosure) on Facebook is included as a predictor variable in the model. For that reason, the screening question was designed to capture both high and low users of Facebook. The next section of the questionnaire totalled 52 questions; measuring social norms, social risk, involvement, advocacy, self-image congruity and self-disclosure tendency as predictor variables. This was followed by the dependent measures with 12 questions, to examine intentions to share donor recognition in general, and when the content of the donor recognition was changed to focus on the cause, focus on the individual, or include a call to action. Each construct was measured using multiple indicators that assists in capturing the full theoretical meaning underlying the constructs and reduces measurement error. For the most part, a 7-point Likert scale (anchored 1-*strongly disagree* and 7-*strongly agree*) was used. Lastly, respondent characteristics were obtained through a series of demographic and donation related questions. The following sections will provide a detailed overview of all questions included in the survey.

6.7.1. Social norms around sharing donation activity

Social norms concern the relative influence of the attitudes and behaviour of others on an individual's own actions. When operationalising this concept, this research follows the categorisation of norms presented by Kenny and Hastings (2011); consisting of descriptive, and prescriptive (injunctive and subjective) norms. Descriptive norms pertain to what others do, while injunctive and subjective norms relate others' attitudes around what people should do (Lapinski & Rimal, 2005). For this study, the behaviour in focus was the act of sharing an act of donation on Facebook. Thus, social norm items measure whether others perform this behaviour (descriptive norms) and whether others would approve of the individual performing the behaviour (injunctive and subjective norms).

It is important in social norm research to distinguish between descriptive, injunctive and subjective norms, and their relative influence, because all three can exist simultaneously in a given social context with either congruent or contradictory implications on behaviour (Cialdini et al., 1990; Rimal & Real, 2003). Normative influence over behaviour is found to be strongest when norms are harmonious (Rimal & Real, 2003; Smith et al., 2012b). However, there are situations when descriptive and prescriptive norms are incongruent, such as donation, where people may approve of (prescriptive) but do not engage in (descriptive) the behaviour. Similarly, injunctive and subjective norms are often viewed as equivalent (Rimal & Real, 2005b). Yet it is more appropriate to view injunctive and subjective norms as distinct sources of influence in donation, given that whilst society as a whole (injunctive norms) may encourage participation in donation, an individual may not receive the same level of encouragement from peers (subjective norms).

This research sought to take a holistic approach to the influence of social norms in donation; however no complete scale measuring descriptive, injunctive and subjective norms exists in the literature. Therefore, items used to measure social norms were drawn from different sources (see Table 6.9). Descriptive norms were measured using four items adapted from a study by Park et al. (2014), and addressed whether 'people on Facebook' share an act of donation on Facebook (Smith & McSweeney, 2007). Injunctive norm research often uses experimental design, as such, there is no consistent measure of injunctive norms with various measurement techniques used (Zaleski & Aloise-Young, 2013). Asking the individual about their beliefs around whether behaviour should or should not be performed has been used by Taylor and Sorenson (2004) as a way of determining injunctive norms, and is the approach taken for this study. Items adapted from Rimal and Real (2005a) were used to measure injunctive norms. Lastly, subjective norms, most often articulated in the Theory of Planned Behaviour, were adapted from Perugini and Conner (2000) and addressed whether 'people who are important' to the respondent would agree with the act of sharing donation activity on Facebook.

Table 6.9 Social Norm Survey Items

ORIGINAL SCALE ITEMS	ITEMS FOR CURRENT STUDY
Descriptive Norms - *Adapted from Park, Choi & Joo (2014) α=.92*	
Many people **in America** participate in **blood donation**	Many people **on Facebook** participate in **sharing an act of donation**
Many **U.S. citizens** are willing to **donate blood**	Many people **on Facebook** are willing to **share an act of donation**
Blood donation is a common behaviour that people **in America** engage in	**Sharing donation activity** is a common behaviour that **people on Facebook** engage in
Many **U.S. citizens donate their blood**	Many **people on Facebook share donation activity**
Injunctive Norms - *Adapted from Rimal & Real (2005); α=.78*	
It is appropriate for **students** to **drink every weekend.**	It is appropriate for **people** to **share donation activity on Facebook**
Society in general considers **this activity** appropriate	Society in general considers **sharing an act of donation on Facebook** appropriate
The University of Texas administration considers it appropriate	
Most people in general consider **it** appropriate	Most people in general consider **sharing donation activity on Facebook** appropriate
Subjective Norms - *Adapted from Perugini & Conner (2000)*	
People who are important to me would want me to …	People who are important to me would want me to **share an act of donation on Facebook**
People who are important to me would approve of me …	People who are important to me would approve of me **sharing donation activity on Facebook**
People who are important to me would support me…	People who are important to me would support me **sharing an act of donation on Facebook**
People who are important to me would encourage me to …	People who are important to me would encourage me to **share an act of donation on Facebook**

6.7.2. Social risk

Perceived social risk is operationalised as one's perceived uncertainty around the acceptability of an action to friends and the potential for negative social consequences following non-acceptance (Nosko et al., 2010). Items to measure the social dimension of perceived risk (see Table 6.10) were taken from Stone and Mason's (1995) six dimension scale of risk, and adapted to suit the current context.

Table 6.10 Social Risk Survey Items

ORIGINAL SCALE ITEMS	ITEMS FOR CURRENT STUDY
Social Risk - *Adapted from Stone & Mason (1995); α=.72*	
If I **bought a personal computer** within the next 12 months **for use at home**, I think I would be held in higher esteem by my **associates at work** (R)	If I **shared an act of donation on Facebook** within the next 12 months, I think I would be held in higher esteem by my **friends** (R)
The thought of **buying a personal computer** within the next 12 months **for use at home** causes me concern because some friends would think I was just being showy	The thought of **sharing donation activity on Facebook** within the next 12 months causes me concern because some friends would think I was just being showy
My purchase of a personal computer within the next 12 months for use at home would cause me to be thought of as being foolish by some people whose opinion I value	**Sharing an act of donation on Facebook** within the next 12 months would cause me to be thought of as being foolish by some people whose opinion I value

6.7.3. Cause involvement

Involvement is operationalised as the level of interest or importance placed on an object by an individual (Russell-Bennett et al., 2007). A shortened version of the Personal Involvement Inventory, validated by Zaichkowsky (1994), was used to measure involvement, and modified to determine the level of involvement each donor had with the particular cause to which their donation was made (see Table 6.11). Zaichkowsky (1985) advocates the use of 7-point semantic differential scales using a series of bipolar items (e.g. important/ unimportant), over Likert scales, to ensure the measure is not product specific but applicable to all products and services. Responses to all 10 items in the scale were averaged to form an overall involvement score; where a higher score indicates a higher level of involvement with the cause.

Table 6.11 Cause Involvement Survey Items

ORIGINAL SCALE ITEMS	ITEMS FOR CURRENT STUDY
Involvement with cause – *Sourced from Zaichkowsky (1994); α=.90*	
To me (object to be judged) is:	To me (cause of NFP) is:
• Important/ unimportant*	• Important/ unimportant*
• Boring/ interesting	• Boring/ interesting
• Relevant/ irrelevant*	• Relevant/ irrelevant*
• Exciting/ unexciting*	• Exciting/ unexciting*
• Means nothing/ means a lot to me	• Means nothing/ means a lot to me
• Appealing/ unappealing *	• Appealing/ unappealing *
• Fascinating/ mundane	• Fascinating/ mundane
• Worthless/ valuable	• Worthless/ valuable
• Involving/ uninvolving*	• Involving/ uninvolving*
• Not needed/ needed	• Not needed/ needed
*= item is reverse scored	*= item is reverse scored

6.7.4. Advocacy for the NFP

Advocacy for the NFP or cause extends beyond WOM and is operationalised as one's innate need to be active in their behavioural and spoken support of a NFP or cause. This conceptualisation is underpinned by supportive brand-related behaviours, including a need to generate brand awareness and encourage others to donate to the cause through positive WOM communication (Becerra, 2013). Items used to measure brand advocacy (see Table 6.12) were adapted from Wallace et al.'s (2012) measure of social network advocacy for brands. As it is unknown whether all individuals completing the survey have shared donation activity to Facebook in the past (as opposed to having 'liked' a brand's Facebook page), the items were adapted to reflect a likelihood of engaging in the behaviour rather than actual engagement.

Table 6.12 Advocacy for the NFP Survey Items

ORIGINAL SCALE ITEMS	ITEMS FOR CURRENT STUDY
Adapted from Wallace et al. (2012); *α=.895*	
I click 'Like' for this brand in order to talk up the **brand** to my friends	**In the future I would share donation activity for [NFP]** to talk up the **charity** to my friends
I click 'Like' for this brand as it enhances my Facebook profile	**In the future I would share donation activity for [NFP]** as it enhances my Facebook profile
I click 'Like' for this brand in order to spread the good word about this **brand**	**In the future I would share donation activity for [NFP]** in order to spread the good word about this **charity**
I give this **brand** a lot of positive WOM online	**In the future I would** give this **[NFP]** a lot of positive WOM online
I recommend this **brand** to friends and family on Facebook	**In the future I would** recommend this **[NFP]** to friends and family on Facebook

6.7.5. Self-image congruity

Self-image congruity relates to the extent to which a product or brand image is reflective of an individuals' own self-image (Kourouthanassis et al., 2015); where higher degrees of consistency between a NFP or cause and one's values and beliefs are more likely to result in sharing donation activity. The self-image congruity measure used in this study consisted of four items operationalised from Sirgy and Su's (2000) concept of actual self-congruity (Kim et al., 2015), that is congruency related to how donors see themselves as opposed to an ideal self. Table 6.13 outlines the original and adapted scale items.

Table 6.13 Self-Image Congruity Survey Items

ORIGINAL SCALE ITEMS	ITEMS FOR CURRENT STUDY
Self-image Congruity - *Adapted from Kim, Jang & Adler (2015); α=.917*	
This **café** reflects who I am	**[NFP]** reflects who I am
I feel a personal connection to this **café**	I feel a personal connection to **[NFP]**
I think this **café** helps me become the type of person I want to be	I think **[NFP]** helps me become the type of person I want to be
This **café** suits me well	**[NFP]** suits me well

6.7.6. Tendency for self-disclosure

For this study, tendency for self-disclosure was operationalised along two separate dimensions; breadth and depth as scaled by Parks and Floyd (1996) and Wheeless (1978). The measures were adjusted to examine self-disclosure on Facebook specifically by Hollenbaugh and Ferris (2014), as displayed in Table 6.14. Breadth of self-disclosure relates to the number of topics covered by individuals' self-disclosure on Facebook, and depth refers to the intimacy level or the amount of detail offered in the disclosure. Responses were averaged for each of the subscales to reveal scores for breadth and depth of self-disclosure.

Table 6.14 Tendency for Self-disclosure Survey Items

ORIGINAL SCALE ITEMS	ITEMS FOR CURRENT STUDY
Breadth of Self-disclosure - *Sourced from Hollenbaugh and Ferris (2014); α=.76*	
My Facebook posts are limited to just a few specific topics (R)	My Facebook posts are limited to just a few specific topics (R)
My Facebook posts range over a wide variety of topics	My Facebook posts range over a wide variety of topics
Once I get started writing on Facebook, I move easily from one topic to another	Once I get started writing on Facebook, I move easily from one topic to another
My Facebook posts address a variety of subjects	My Facebook posts address a variety of subjects
My Facebook posts tend to centre around one subject of interest (R)	My Facebook posts tend to centre around one subject of interest (R)
Depth of Self-disclosure - *Sourced from Hollenbaugh & Ferris (2014); α=.79*	
I intimately disclose who I really am, openly and fully on Facebook	I intimately disclose who I really am, openly and fully on Facebook
Once I get started, my self-disclosures on Facebook last a long time	Once I get started, my self-disclosures on Facebook last a long time
I often disclose intimate, personal things about myself on Facebook without hesitation	I often disclose intimate, personal things about myself on Facebook without hesitation
I feel that I sometimes do not control my self-disclosure of personal or intimate things I tell about myself on Facebook	I feel that I sometimes do not control my self-disclosure of personal or intimate things I tell about myself on Facebook
Once I get started, I intimately and fully reveal myself in my self-disclosures on Facebook	Once I get started, I intimately and fully reveal myself in my self-disclosures on Facebook

6.7.7. Intention to share donor recognition on Facebook

Intention to share donor recognition on Facebook was assessed using a three-item scale measured on a 7-point Likert scale, anchored 1= strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree (see Table 6.15), that increases in certainty. The scale was originally validated by Gabisch and Milne (2013) to assess willingness to disclose personal information to a website and adapted to the context of disclosing donation activity on Facebook.

Table 6.15 Intention to Share Survey Items

ORIGINAL SCALE ITEMS	ITEMS FOR CURRENT STUDY
Intention to Share – *Adapted from Gabisch & Milne (2013); α=.96*	
I am willing to **provide personal information when registering with the company's web site**	I am willing to **share the donation badge on my Facebook page**
I am likely to share **my personal information when registering with the company's web site**	I am likely to share **the donation badge on my Facebook page**
I would reveal my personal information when registering with the company's web site	I would **share the donation badge to my personal Facebook page after donating**

6.8. Data Analysis

In addition to descriptive and correlational data, a number of analytical techniques were used to test hypothesised relationships. Specifically t-tests and structural equation modelling (SEM) were used in Study 2A, and SEM was used in Study 2B, for hypothesis testing. Further, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests were conducted in Study 2B to determine whether differences existed between categories of donations. The data analysis techniques of t-tests, SEM and ANOVA are subsequently outlined, followed by sample size estimation for both studies.

6.8.1. T-tests

The SPSS 21.0 Statistics program will be used to analyse the results of the experimental component of Study 2A, utilising the t-test technique for between-group analysis. T-test is a quantitative analysis tool that allows for mean comparisons of constructs to be made between two sample groups (e.g. male and female) or experimental treatment groups (Hair et al., 2010). This distinction is crucial

in determining the varied impact of acknowledgment and recognition (groups) on blood donors' self- and reflected appraisal.

6.8.2. Structural equation modelling (SEM)

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to analyse the data collected for the model component of study 2A and study 2B. There are several advantages to SEM that include the ability to test models with variables that function as both independent and dependent variables and the ability to model error terms (Byrne, 2001). This method uses a combination of CFA (measurement model) and path modelling (structural model) techniques to estimate relationships between observed and latent variables (Malhotra et al., 2006). The SEM software AMOS will be used to test the measurement model of constructs (CFA) where pre-existing measurements have been adapted to a donation context, and estimate the path coefficients (path analysis) of the structural model (Mancha & Leung, 2010). To fully specify an SEM model, the measurement model is combined with a structural model (hypothesised model) (Hair et al., 2010). As SEM combines multiple regression and mediation analysis techniques, the overall proportion of variance explained in each dependent variable is reported, as well as the unique relationship and importance of each predictor variable on the dependent variable (Allen & Bennett, 2010).

To determine model fit for each measurement and structural model, the following fit statistics will be reported: CMIN/DF, *p*, CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR. If the initial model specified does not fit the sample data adequately, model re-specification and re-estimation will be undertaken using modification indices (MI) and expected parameter change (EPC) value (Rahman, Shah, & Rasli, 2015). Inherently, this approach makes the analyses exploratory rather than confirmatory (Byrne, 2010), but is suitable given the unique context of donation and overall aim to explore predictors and outcomes of an under-researched area; online donor appreciation. To avoid re-specifying an 'over-fitted model' (Wheaton, 1987) or 'capitalising on chance' (MacCallum, Roznowski, & Necowitz, 1992), the assessment of overall model adequacy will take into account theoretical and practical considerations in addition to statistical criteria of MI and EPC (Olsson, Troye, & Howell, 1999; Martens, 2005; Byrne, 2010). This research used the widely accepted approach of *sequential model modification*

(MacCallum et al., 1992), where model fit was re-evaluated after each modification (Schuster, Drennan, & Lings, 2015).

6.8.3. Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

The analysis-of-variance (ANOVA) technique for between-group analysis will be used to determine differences between categories of donation in Study 2B. ANOVA is a quantitative analysis tool that allows for mean comparisons of variables to be made between three or more groups (Hair et al., 2010). This distinction is crucial in determining the varied impact of category of donation on the dependent variable of sharing donor recognition on SNSs, as well as the determinants of sharing.

6.9. Ethical Considerations

Study two was conducted according to the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans, and was assessed and approved by the Queensland University of Technology Ethics Unit (approval number 1500000500) and the Blood Service Human Research Ethics Committee (reference number 2015#03) for contact with blood donors only.

To ensure the research was free of coercion and exploitation (Neuman, 2011), participants were informed that participation was voluntary and could with draw at any time. Submission of the completed online survey was accepted as an indication of consent to participate. Relevant participants were also made aware that the project was not funded but supported 'in-kind' by their respective NFP; either the Blood Service or Australian Red Cross. Privacy and confidentiality of the results was conveyed to participants (Creswell, 2003). The researcher will have no direct contact with the sample as respondents will be contacted by their respective NFP and participant responses will remain anonymous. Completed surveys could not be traced to an individual by either the researcher or the NFP.

6.10. Conclusion

This chapter has presented the quantitative methodology for study 2A (addressing RQ1) and 2B (addressing RQ2 and RQ3). The next chapter, Chapter Seven, presents the analysis results of Study 2A and 2B.

Chapter Seven: Study Two Analysis

7.1. Introduction

Following model development and justification, Study Two will quantitatively investigate all three research questions and test relationships within the hypothesised models. This chapter reports the analysis and results of Study 2A first, followed by Study 2B.

7.2. Study 2A Data Analysis

The following sections report the survey response rate, treatment of the data and sample characteristics from the acknowledgement scenario, recognition scenario groups and combined sample for Study 2A. Construct reliability and validity testing results are subsequently presented using the combine sample dataset.

7.2.1. Survey response rate

A traditional random sampling approach without replacement was used to recruit a representative sample of Australian blood donors through the Blood Service database. As a standard practice for the Blood Service Donor Research team, email invitations were administered to blood donors by the Blood Service in two waves to reduce unnecessary contact with additional donors depending on the response rate achieved. Across the two scenarios, a total of 3971 blood donors were invited to participate in the study via email, with 409 attempting to complete the survey; achieving a response rate of 10.3% (see Table 7.1). However, 43 respondents were not eligible to complete the survey due to their absent use of SNSs (e.g. Facebook) for personal use. This resulted in a total useable sample size of 366 and an overall response rate of 9.2%; with $n=168$ for the acknowledgement scenario and $n=198$ for the recognition scenario.

Table 7.1 Study 2A Response Rate

	Total Contacted	Total Responses	Screened out	Total Complete	Response Rate
Wave 1 (26/10/15)					
Acknowledgement	1060	96	7	89	8.4%
Recognition	1058	64	5	59	5.6%
Wave 2 (6/11/15)					
Acknowledgement	671	92	13	79	11.8%
Recognition	1182	153	18	135	11.4%
Total					
Acknowledgement	1731	188	20	168	9.7%
Recognition	2240	221	23	198	8.8%
TOTAL	3971	409	43	366	9.2%

7.2.2. Treatment of data

Missing data

Missing data can impact the validity of the results, particularly when using SEM analysis (Hair et al., 2003). As Key Survey software was used to develop the online survey, this software allows the survey to be set-up in such a way that ensured respondents provided an answer to all questions before proceeding. As a result, there was no missing data present in the dataset. However, some respondents reported their place of birth as opposed to their year of birth to the question 'What year were you born in?' As the respondents' age could not be determined to fit within the sample criteria of 18 to 40 years of age, a further 10 respondents were removed from the dataset. This resulted in a final sample size of 356 (acknowledgement scenario n=159; recognition scenario n=197).

Common method bias

Common method bias, the possibility that variance between constructs is attributable to the measurement method used (i.e. rather than the constructs the measures are assumed to represent, can threaten the validity of the conclusions drawn from the analysis (Podsakoff et al., 2003). It is most often indicated by the emergence of a single

factor accounting for the majority of covariance among scale items (Sharma, Yetton, & Crawford, 2009) resulting from using a similar measurement method throughout the survey. As the majority of questions were answered according to a 7-point Likert scale, the Harman single factor test was used to test whether common method bias threatened the validity of this study. This test required loading all of the scale items for emotional value, commitment, accountability and intention measured using a 7-point scale into a factor analysis and specifying a one factor solution (Podsakoff et al., 2003). From the total sample, it was found that 37.40% of the variance was explained by a single factor. Given that this is below the maximum threshold of 50%, it is concluded that common method bias did not impact the validity of this study and is unlikely to confound the interpretation of the results.

7.2.3. Sample characteristics

Sample demographic characteristics are outlined in Table 7.2 and sample donation history traits in Table 7.3. Overall, the average age of the sample is 29 years old, and the majority of respondents are located on the east coast of Australia. There are a much higher proportion of female respondents in the sample (approximately 70%) across both scenario groups. To improve the gender skew to a 60:40 ratio, this would have required contacting an additional 700 male blood donors to achieve an additional 70 male respondents A request was made to the Blood Service to collect more data from male donors only, however this request was not allowed due to the number of blood donors already contacted across study two, and the number of additional contacts required to achieve the desired sample to reduce (but not eliminate) the gender skew. Nevertheless, the higher proportion of female blood donors is reflective of the Australian blood donor population below the age of 40, comprised of 26.9% female donors and 21.5% male donors in this age-group.

In relation to respondents' donation history (see Table 7.3), all respondents indicated they have donated blood within the last 12 months in line with sample requirements; with the majority of respondents donating more recently (within the last 6 months). Further, the sample consisted mostly of repeat blood donors (90.7%), having donated blood more than once over their donor career. It is also interesting to note that 71.4% of the total sample are multi-type donors, meaning they donate money and/or time in

addition to donating blood; and that within this sample, blood donors are more likely to also donate money than time.

Table 7.2 Study 2A Sample Demographic Characteristics

Variable	Acknowledgement	Recognition	Total
Size (*n*)	159	197	356
Age			
Mean (sd.)	28.77 (4.87)	29.17 (3.91)	28.99 (4.37)
Range (years)	18 – 35	18 – 35	18 – 35
Gender			
Male	46 *(28.9%)*	56 *(28.4%)*	102 *(28.7%)*
Female	113 *(71.1%)*	141 *(71.6%)*	254 *(71.3%)*
Location			
Queensland	34 *(21.4%)*	20 *(10.2%)*	54 *(15.2%)*
New South Wales	34 *(21.4%)*	86 *(43.7%)*	120 *(33.7%)*
Australian Capital Territory	5 *(3.1%)*	10 *(5.1%)*	15 *(4.2%)*
Victoria	41 *(25.8%)*	60 *(30.5%)*	101 *(28.4%)*
Tasmania	3 *(1.9%)*	5 *(2.5%)*	8 *(2.2%)*
South Australia	20 *(12.6%)*	11 *(5.6%)*	31 *(8.7%)*
Western Australia	22 *(13.8%)*	5 *(2.5%)*	27 *(7.6%)*
Northern Territory	-	-	-
Work Status			
Full time	95 *(59.7%)*	138 *(70.1%)*	233 *(65.4%)*
Part-time	20 *(12.6%)*	23 *(11.7%)*	43 *(12.1%)*
Casual	20 *(12.6%)*	25 *(12.7%)*	45 *(12.6%)*
Unemployed	24 *(15.1%)*	11 *(5.6%)*	35 *(9.8%)*
Income			
Less than $30,000	44 *(27.7%)*	38 *(19.3%)*	82 *(23.0%)*
$30,000 to $44,000	15 *(9.4%)*	18 *(9.1%)*	33 *(9.3%)*
$45,000 to $54,000	14 *(8.8%)*	17 *(8.6%)*	31 *(8.7%)*
$55,000 to $64,000	19 *(11.9%)*	23 *(11.7%)*	42 *(11.8%)*
$65,000 to $74,000	21 *(13.2%)*	25 *(12.7%)*	46 *(12.9%)*
$75,000 and above	44 *(27.7%)*	73 *(37.1%)*	117 *(32.9%)*
Missing	*2*	*3*	*5*

Table 7.3 Study 2A Sample Donation History

Variable	Acknowledgement	Recognition	Total
Size (*n*)	159	197	356
Blood donation eligibility			
Yes, currently eligible to give blood	146 *(91.8%)*	184 *(93.4%)*	330 *(92.7%)*
Temporarily deferred	13 *(8.2%)*	11 *(5.6%)*	24 *(6.7%)*
Advised cannot to give blood	-	1 *(0.5%)*	1 *(0.3%)*
Don't know	-	1 *(0.5%)*	1 *(0.3%)*
Last blood donation			
Less than one month ago	57 *(35.8%)*	69 *(35.0%)*	126 *(35.4%)*
Between one and six months ago	96 *(60.4%)*	122 *(61.9%)*	218 *(61.2%)*
Between six months and one year ago	6 *(3.8%)*	6 *(3.0%)*	12 *(3.4%)*
More than one year ago	-	-	-
Number of Donations			
1 (First time donor)	23 *(14.5%)*	10 *(5.1%)*	33 *(9.3%)*
2	10 *(6.3%)*	9 *(4.6%)*	19 *(5.3%)*
3-5	26 *(16.4%)*	23 *(11.7%)*	49 *(13.8%)*
6-10	31 *(19.5%)*	53 *(26.9%)*	84 *(23.6%)*
11-20	40 *(25.2%)*	60 *(30.5%)*	100 *(28.1%)*
21 or more	29 *(18.2%)*	42 *(21.3%)*	71 *(19.9%)*
Has anyone ever donated blood based on recommendation?			
Yes	98 *(61.6%)*	131 *(66.5%)*	229 *(64.3%)*
No	61 *(38.4%)*	66 *(33.5%)*	127 *(35.7%)*
Single versus multi-type donor			
Donates blood only	50 *(31.4%)*	52 *(26.4%)*	102 *(28.6%)*
Donates blood and money	61 *(38.4%)*	85 *(43.1%)*	146 *(41.0%)*
Donates blood and time	10 *(6.3%)*	18 *(9.1%)*	28 *(7.9%)*
Donates blood, time and money	38 *(23.9%)*	42 *(21.3%)*	80 *(22.5%)*

7.2.4. Construct reliability

Reliability is an assessment of the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a factor (Hair et al., 2010). Internal consistency reliability tests were performed to assess measurement reliability; specifically Cronbach's Alpha coefficient and item-to-total correlations are reported in Table 7.4. Results indicate that, for the most part, all items used to measure model constructs were reliable, with item-to-total correlation scores exceeding .30 and Cronbach's alpha scores over .60 (Hair et al., 2010). For self-appraisal and reflected appraisal, if the item 'I don't care about the Blood Service' is removed the alpha coefficient of each construct is improved; from α =.753 to α =.802 for self-appraisal and from α =.917 to α =.950. Therefore this item is subject to removal. The alpha coefficient for Commitment is towards the lower end of acceptability, however removal of any items does not improve the alpha coefficient; thus item removal is not necessary.

Table 7.4 Study 2A Construct Reliability

Construct Items	Item-to-total Correlation	α if Item Deleted
Self-Appraisal		**.753**
I actively support the Blood Service	.674	.648
I support blood donation and providing a safe supply of blood products to patients in need	.633	.676
I help the Blood Service achieve their goals	.575	.688
I don't care about the Blood Service (R)	.235	.802
My contribution to the Blood Service is important to me	.525	.707
Reflected Appraisal		**.917**
I actively support the Blood Service	.884	.878
I support blood donation and providing a safe supply of blood products to patients in need	.881	.879
I help the Blood Service achieve their goals	.869	.881
I don't care about the Blood Service (R)	.489	.950
My contribution to the Blood Service is important to me	.827	.890
Emotional Value		**.830**
Donating blood makes me feel comfortable	.544	.814
Donating blood makes me feel safe	.699	.781
Donating blood makes me feel happy	.648	.800
Donating blood makes me feel calm	.678	.786
Donating blood makes me feel relieved	.624	.800
Donating blood makes me feel proud	.463	.828
Commitment		**.604**
I feel a sense of belonging to the Blood Service	.402	.535
I care about the long term success of the Blood Service	.348	.590
I would describe myself as a loyal supporter of the Blood Service	.506	.373
Self-Esteem		**.937**
I feel I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others	.746	.932
I feel that I have a number of good qualities	.765	.930
I take a positive attitude toward myself	.848	.922
On the whole I am satisfied with myself	.842	.923
I usually feel good about myself	.808	.926
I feel I have much to offer as a person	.815	.926
I have a lot of confidence in the actions I undertake in my life	.753	.932
Accountability		**.849**
I feel accountable to my close friends to donate blood again	.757	.752
I feel accountable to those within my Facebook list to donate blood again	.687	.821
I feel accountable to those who are important to me to donate blood again	.713	.795
Intentions to Donate		**.912**
I would like to donate blood in the next 3 months	.736	.949
I intend to donate blood in the next 3 months	.893	.815
I will donate blood in the next three months	.886	.830

7.2.5. Construct validity

Validity, the extent to which the construct is accurately measured by a set of items, was examined as multi-item constructs were used in the study (Malhotra et al., 2006; Neuman, 2011). To determine construct validity of the questionnaire and confirm the factorial structure of the measures, factor analysis (FA) using SPSS and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using AMOS were conducted using the combined sample data collected.

Factor Analysis

Due to the theoretical foundation of the questionnaire development, using previously validated scales and predefined dimensions, principal components analysis extraction was specified with direct oblimin rotation as per SEM requirements (Byrne, 2010). Items were first tested to investigate appropriateness of the sample size (*n = 356*). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was relatively high (see Table 7.5) confirming the sample size is suitable as the score is above 0.6 (Mooi & Sarstedt, 2011). Furthermore, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity indicates the items are sufficiently interrelated ($p < 0.001$, see Table 7.5) and are able to support a meaningful factor solution (Allen & Bennett, 2010).

Table 7.5 KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

Construct	**KMO**	**Bartlett's Test of Sphericity**	
		Chi-Square	*df* (sig.)
Self-Appraisal	.828	2304.761	45 (.000)
Reflected Appraisal	.828	2304.761	45 (.000)
Emotional Value	.809	812.292	15 (.000)
Commitment	.606	124.451	3 (.000)
Self-Esteem	.896	2209.624	21 (.000)
Accountability	.722	463.992	3 (.000)
Intentions	.710	895.251	3 (.000)

All item communalities and factor loading scores are shown in Table 7.6. To ensure construct validity, item factor loading scores were required to exceed the .60 threshold (Hair et al., 2010). The output made evident that the self-appraisal and reflected appraisal item 'I don't care about the Blood Service', should be removed due to the low extracted communalities scores of 0.116 and 0.390 respectively (Mooi & Sarstedt, 2011) and factor loading scores below the minimum threshold. The items were omitted from the analysis to produce a workable solution. After re-running the analysis, results demonstrate that all constructs achieved a unidimensional solution and all scale items had high construct validity, with factor loadings exceeding the recommended threshold.

Table 7.6 Study 2A Construct Validity: Factor Analysis

Construct Items	Communalities	Factor Loading
Self-Appraisal (*Variance explained = 21.39%)*		
I actively support the Blood Service	.740	.860
I support blood donation and providing a safe supply of blood products to patients in need	.673	.820
I help the Blood Service achieve their goals	.635	.823
My contribution to the Blood Service is important to me	.499	.667
Reflected Appraisal (*Variance explained = 54.07%)*		
I actively support the Blood Service	.900	.942
I support blood donation and providing a safe supply of blood products to patients in need	.886	.937
I help the Blood Service achieve their goals	.878	.937
My contribution to the Blood Service is important to me	.826	.915
Emotional Value (*Variance explained = 55.00%)*		
Donating blood makes me feel comfortable	.465	.682
Donating blood makes me feel safe	.652	.807
Donating blood makes me feel happy	.607	.779
Donating blood makes me feel calm	.625	.790
Donating blood makes me feel relieved	.567	.753
Donating blood makes me feel proud	.385	.620
Commitment (*Variance explained = 56.34%)*		
I feel a sense of belonging to the Blood Service	.547	.740
I care about the long term success of the Blood Service	.471	.687
I would describe myself as a loyal supporter of the Blood Service	.672	.820
Self-Esteem (*Variance explained =72.92%)*		
I feel I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others	.667	.817
I feel that I have a number of good qualities	.691	.832
I take a positive attitude toward myself	.800	.894
On the whole I am satisfied with myself	.787	.887
I usually feel good about myself	.740	.860
I feel I have much to offer as a person	.752	.867
I have a lot of confidence in the actions I undertake in my life	.667	.817
Accountability (*Variance explained = 76.97%)*		
I feel accountable to my close friends to donate blood again	.808	.899
I feel accountable to those within my Facebook friends list to donate blood again	.736	.858
I feel accountable to those who are important to me to donate blood again	.765	.875
Intentions to Donate (*Variance explained = 85.64%)*		
I would like to donate blood in the next 3 months	.761	.872
I intend to donate blood in the next 3 months	.905	.951
I will donate blood in the next three months	.904	.951

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To test the hypothesised relationships in the structural model for RQ1 using SEM, the measurement model of all constructs had to be tested and demonstrated to be an adequate to good fit to the data. In order to validate construct measurement models, CFA was performed using AMOS. To demonstrate model fit, the measurement model had to meet the requirements of five fit indices (see Table 7.7). The initial measurement model demonstrated poor fit to the data. Emotional Value item 'Donating blood makes me feel proud' was removed due to a low factor loading of .506 (below the recommended minimum threshold of .60; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), which improved the model fit substantially. Based on the final measurement model fit statistics (see Table 7.7), it can be concluded that the measurement model achieved good fit to the data. Individual item factor loadings are shown in Table 7.8.

Table 7.7 Study 2A Full Measurement Model Fit Statistics

	CMIN/DF	***p***	**CFI**	**RMSEA**	**SRMR**
Threshold	< 3 = good fit	< .05	>.90 = good fit	.05 to .10 = moderate fit	< .08 = good fit
Source	Hair et al. (2010)	Hair et al. (2010)	Hair et al. (2010)	MacCallum et al. (1996)	Hu & Bentler (1999)
Initial Model	3.479	.000	.876	.084	.065
Final Model	2.696	.000	.919	.069	.061

Table 7.8 Study 2A Construct Validity: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Construct	Factor Loading
Self-Appraisal	
I actively support the Blood Service	.813
I support blood donation and providing a safe supply of blood products to patients in need	.721
I help the Blood Service achieve their goals	.706
My contribution to the Blood Service is important to me	.640
Reflected Appraisal	
I actively support the Blood Service	.952
I support blood donation and providing a safe supply of blood products to patients in need	.939
I help the Blood Service achieve their goals	.903
My contribution to the Blood Service is important to me	.846
Emotional Value	
Donating blood makes me feel comfortable	.617
Donating blood makes me feel safe	.782
Donating blood makes me feel happy	.676
Donating blood makes me feel calm	.773
Donating blood makes me feel relieved	.696
Donating blood makes me feel proud	*(removed)*
Commitment	
I feel a sense of belonging to the Blood Service	.646
I care about the long term success of the Blood Service	.414
I would describe myself as a loyal supporter of the Blood Service	.695
Self-Esteem	
I feel I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others	.752
I feel that I have a number of good qualities	.771
I take a positive attitude toward myself	.891
On the whole I am satisfied with myself	.893
I usually feel good about myself	.857
I feel I have much to offer as a person	.826
I have a lot of confidence in the actions I undertake in my life	.782
Accountability	
I feel accountable to my close friends to donate blood again	.848
I feel accountable to those within my Facebook friends list to donate blood again	.770
I feel accountable to those who are important to me to donate blood again	.813
Intentions to Donate	
I would like to donate blood in the next 3 months	.758
I intend to donate blood in the next 3 months	.950
I will donate blood in the next three months	.956

Convergent and Discriminant Validity

Convergent validity was assessed by the average variance extracted (AVE), while discriminant validity was examined by comparing the AVE for each construct and the squared correlation of each pair of constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). If the AVE score of each individual construct is higher than the squared correlation between the two constructs, this demonstrates that the construct has discriminant validity. All of the constructs except commitment demonstrate adequate convergent validity (AVE > .50; Hair et al., 2010). Also, most constructs, except commitment, demonstrate discriminant validity with AVE scores higher than squared correlation coefficients (see Table 7.9). Commitment was found not to be discriminant with Self-Appraisal (r^2= *.44)*. After closer inspection of the self-appraisal items it was found that removing the item with the lowest factor loading '*My contribution to the Blood Service is important to me*' lowered the squared correlation between Commitment and Self-Appraisal (r^2= *.37)*; thus improving discriminant validity between the constructs.

Table 7.9 Study 2A Discriminant Validity Results

Construct	AVE	SA	RA	EV	CM	SE	AC	INT
SA	.58	NA						
RA	.83	*r* =.41 r^2 =.17						
EV	.51	*r* =.41 r^2 =.17	*r* =.32 r^2=.10					
CM	.36	*r* =.61 r^2 =.37	*r* =.39 r^2=.15	*r* =.56 r^2 =.31				
SE	.68	*r* =.28 r^2 =.08	*r* =.20 r^2=.04	*r* =.22 r^2=.05	*r* =.23 r^2=.05			
AC	.66	*r* =.27 r^2 =.07	*r* =.34 r^2=.12	*r* =.52 r^2=.27	*r* =.42 r^2=.18	*r* =.20 r^2=.04		
INT	.80	*r* =.35 r^2=.12	*r* =.17 r^2=.03	*r* =.26 r^2=.07	*r* =.37 r^2=.14	*r* =.17 r^2=.03	*r* =.15 r^2=.02	

Note: SA = Self Appraisal, RA = Reflected Appraisal, EV = Emotional Value, CM = Commitment, SE = Self-Esteem, AC = Accountability, INT = Intentions to Donate
r = original correlation score, r^2 = squared correlation score

7.3. Study 2A Hypothesis Testing

The following sections outline analyses performed to answer RQ1; *how does online donor acknowledgement and recognition stimulate repeat donation activity?* The construct means and correlations are reported (section 7.3.1). Hypothesis 1 (H1) was tested using t-tests (section 7.3.2), and hypotheses 2 to 9 (H2-9) were tested using SEM (section 7.3.3).

7.3.1. Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics for the model constructs are outlined in Table 7.10. Overall mean scores for all constructs except accountability were relatively high. Positive significant correlations were achieved between all constructs, providing preliminary support for the hypothesised relationships and model. Multi-collinearity was also assessed by examining the inter-correlations between the constructs. As the range of inter-correlation scores (r =.15 to r =.61) is below the threshold of ±.85 (Allen & Bennett, 2010), it can be concluded that multicollinearity did not pose a threat to the analysis.

Table 7.10 Study 2A Descriptive Statistics (total sample)

	SA	RA	EV	CM	SE	AC	INT
Self-Appraisal	**(.797)^**						
Reflected Appraisal	.38**	**(.950)**					
Emotional Value	.34**	.32**	**(.828)**				
Commitment	.61**	.39**	.56**	**(.604)**			
Self-Esteem	.26**	.20**	.22**	.23**	**(.937)**		
Accountability	.22**	.34**	.52**	.42**	.20**	**(.849)**	
Intentions to Donate	.33**	.17**	.26**	.37**	.17**	.15**	**(.912)**
Scale	1 to 6	1 to 6	1 to 7	1 to 7	1 to 4	1 to 7	1 to 7
Mean	5.24	4.85	5.25	5.89	3.31	3.88	6.48
Std. Deviation	0.64	0.98	1.04	0.87	0.52	1.67	0.96

Note: SA = Self Appraisal, RA = Reflected Appraisal, EV = Emotional Value, CM = Commitment, SE = Self-Esteem, AC = Accountability, INT = Intentions to Donate; * *p<.05; ** p<.001;* ^=*Cronbach's Alpha*

Correlation scores between model constructs and sample characteristic variables were also estimated and are outlined in Appendix D. Interestingly, correlations suggested that those who have had others donate blood based on their recommendation reported higher self-appraisal (r=-.14, p<.05), reflected appraisal (r=-.14, p<.05), commitment (r=-.15, p<.05), accountability (r=-.16, p<.05) and intentions to donate (r=-.11, p<.05). Although these correlations are weak, a post hoc analysis t-test was performed (see Appendix E). Results confirmed that those who have had another donate blood based on their recommendation report significantly higher self-appraisal (p=.007), reflected appraisal (p=.010), commitment (p=.009), accountability (p=.003) and intentions to donate (p=.054), than those who have not.

7.3.2. Hypothesis testing (H1): T-Test

An independent samples *t* test was used to compare the mean scores of self-appraisal and reflected appraisal reported by participants in the acknowledgement scenario group (n=159) to the mean scores reported by those within the recognition scenario group (n=197). The self-appraisal *t* test was non-significant, with the acknowledgement group (M=5.25, SD=0.63) reporting similar scores for self-appraisal to the recognition group (M=5.22, SD=0.65), t(354)=.412, p=.680). The reflected appraisal *t* test was statistically significant, with the acknowledgment group (M=4.55, SD=1.12) reporting reflected appraisal scores lower, 95% CI [-.74, -.34], than the recognition group (M=5.08, SD=.77), t(268)=-5.102, p<.001). Therefore H1 is supported; blood donors who received the recognition scenario reported a significantly more positive reflected appraisal than those who received the acknowledgment only scenario.

7.3.3. Hypothesis testing (H2-9): SEM structural model

The initial structural model proposed in Figure 5.1 indicated adequate fit to the data (see Table 7.11) with CMIN/DF and SRMR fit statistics exceeding recommended thresholds. To improve model fit, the model was respecified on statistical and theoretical grounds as recommended by MacCallum et al. (1992) and Byrne (2010). Model re-specifications included adding a path from accountability to emotional value, from emotional value to commitment, and from accountability to commitment. The

final structural model demonstrated good fit to the data with fit statistics of *CMIN/DF* = 2.648, *p*=.000, *CFI* = .923, *RMSEA* = .068 and *SRMR* = .068.

Table 7.11 Study 2A: Full Structural Model Fit Score Thresholds, Source and Statistics

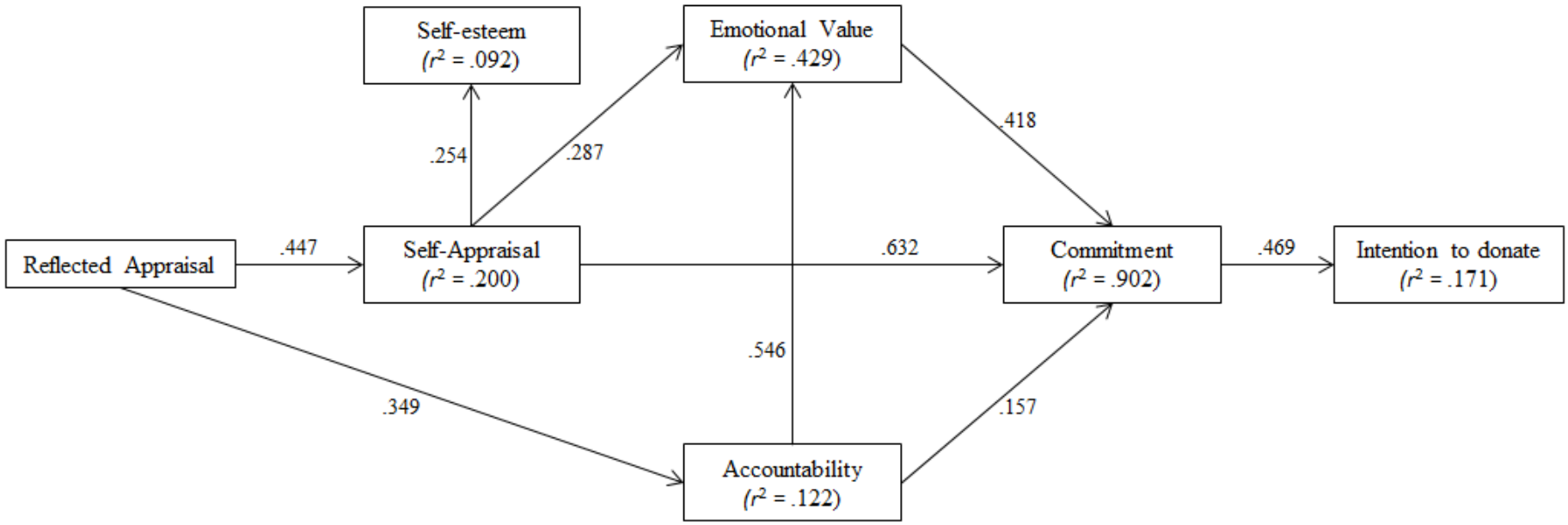
	CMIN/DF	***p***	**CFI**	**RMSEA**	**SRMR**
Threshold	< 3 = good fit	< .05	>.90 = good fit	.05 to .10 = moderate fit	< .08 = good fit
Source	Hair et al. (2010)	Hair et al. (2010)	Hair et al. (2010)	MacCallum et al. (1996)	Hu & Bentler (1999)
Initial Model	3.058	.000	.903	.076	.097
Final Model	2.648	.000	.923	.068	.068

The output of the structural model revealed that six out of the remaining ten hypothesised relationships were supported by the data at *t-value ≥ 1.96* and *p<.05* (see Table 7.12 and Figure 7.1). As predicted in Chapter Five, an individual's reflected appraisal positively influenced self-appraisal as a NFP supporter (β=.447; H2), which subsequently has a positive relationship with emotional value (β=.287; H3), commitment (β=.632; H4) and self-esteem (β=.254; H5a). Reflected appraisal was found to have a large direct influence on accountability (β=.349; H6), but not self-esteem (β=.088, *ns*; H5b). Interestingly, emotional value (β=-.060, *ns*; H7) and accountability (β=-.085, *ns*; H10) did not have a significant relationship with intentions to donate, but were found to significantly drive donor commitment in addition to self-appraisal; overall explaining 90.2% of the variance in donor commitment. Self-esteem did not significantly predict intentions to donate (β=.061, *ns*; H9); presenting as an outcome itself. Only commitment (β=.469; H8) was found to significantly predict intentions, explaining 17.1% of the variance.

Table 7.12 Study 2A: Hypothesis Summary and Path Estimates from Final Model

H0	**Hypothesised Path**	**β**	***C.R.* (*t*)**	***P***	**Supported at $p < .05$**
H2	Reflected Appraisal → Self-Appraisal	.447	7.973	.000	Supported
H3	Self-appraisal → Emotional Value	.287	4.917	.000	Supported
H4	Self-appraisal → Commitment	.632	9.187	.000	Supported
H5a	Self-appraisal → Self-Esteem	.254	3.756	.000	Supported
H5b	Reflected Appraisal → Self-Esteem	.088	1.420	.156	Unsupported
H6	Reflected Appraisal → Accountability	.349	6.165	.000	Supported
H7	Emotional Value → Intention	-.060	-.554	.580	Unsupported
H8	Commitment → Intention	.469	4.388	.000	Supported
H9	Self-Esteem → Intention	.061	1.100	.271	Unsupported
H10	Accountability → Intention	-.085	-1.109	.267	Unsupported
	Un-hypothesised Path	**β**	***C.R.* (*t*)**	***p***	
	Accountability → Emotional Value	.546	8.004	.000	
	Emotional Value → Commitment	.418	5.128	.000	
	Accountability → Commitment	.157	2.338	.019	

Figure 7.1 Study 2A: Final Structural Model



Note: Significant relationships outlined only

7.4. Study 2B Data Analysis

The following sections report the survey response rate, treatment of the data and sample characteristics for Study 2B presented separately between the three distinct donation samples (blood donors, volunteers and money donors) and as a combined sample. Construct reliability and validity testing results are subsequently presented using the entire combined sample of donors.

7.4.1. Survey response rate

Blood donor sample

A traditional random sampling approach without replacement was used to recruit a representative sample of Australian blood donors through the Blood Service database. Data was collected between 26/10/2015 and 12/11/2015. A total of 1842 blood donors were emailed an invitation to participate in the study, with 135 attempting to complete the survey; achieving a response rate of 7.3%. However, 11 respondents were not eligible to complete the survey due to their absent use of social networking platforms (e.g. Facebook) for personal use. This resulted in a total useable sample size of n=124 and an overall response rate of 6.7% (see Table 7.13).

Table 7.13 Study 2B Blood Donor Response Rate

	Total Contacted	**Total Responses**	**Screened out**	**Total Complete**	**Response Rate**
Wave 1 (26/10/15)	1065	56	5	51	4.8%
Wave 2 (6/11/15)	777	79	6	73	9.4%
Total	1842	135	11	124	6.7%

Volunteer sample

As an exhaustive list of Australian volunteers was not available, volunteers were sourced from Australian based NFPs. A total of 20 NFPs were contacted requesting their assistance with data collection for this study (see Table 7.14). Thirteen NFPs were unable to participate due to a number of reasons; including a lack of resources and

ability to contact volunteers, volunteer population was too small or did not meet sample requirements. Therefore, volunteers were recruited from seven different NFPs.

Table 7.14 Not-For-Profit Organisations' Response to Request for Assistance

Not-for-Profit Organisation	Provided study details via		Support Study
	Phone	*Email*	
Australian Red Cross	Y	Y	**Y**
Second Bite	Y	Y	N
Cancer Council WA	Y	Y	N
Ronald McDonald House Monash Chapter	Y	Y	**Y**
Ronald McDonald House Mater and Herston Chapter		Y	N
Zoos Victoria	Y	Y	N
Conservation Volunteers	Y	Y	N
CanTeen	Y	Y	N
YFS	Y	Y	N
The Smith Family	Y	Y	**Y**
RSPCA QLD	Y	Y	N
Salvation Army	Y	Y	**Y**
Mission Australia		Y	N
SIDS and Kids	Y	Y	N
Cancer Council QLD	Y	Y	**Y**
St Vincent de Paul	Y		N
Heart Foundation (QLD)	Y	Y	**Y**
Starlight Children's Foundation	Y	Y	**Y**
McGrath Foundation	Y	Y	N
Clean Up Australia	Y		N

Note: Y = yes; N = no

Data was collected between 22/10/2015 and 3/03/2016. Across the seven participating NFPs, a total of 12,757 volunteers were invited to participate in the study mostly via email (with the exception of volunteers recruited from The Smith Family), with 174 attempting to complete the survey; achieving a response rate of 1.4%. However, 27 respondents were not eligible to complete the survey (screened out) due to being under the age of 18 years old and their absent use of SNSs (e.g. Facebook) for personal use.

This resulted in a total useable sample size of 147 volunteers and an overall response rate of 1.2% (see Table 7.15).

Table 7.15 Study 2B Volunteer Response Rate

	Total Contacted	Total Responses	Screened out	Total Complete	Response Rate
Australian Red Cross	1,352	33	2	31	2.3%
Ronald McDonald House Monash	100	0	0	0	0.0%
The Salvation Army	1,229	59	22	37	3.0%
The Smith Family	8	8	0	8	100.0%
Heart Foundation	194	7	0	7	3.6%
Cancer Council QLD	310	30	1	29	9.4%
Starlight Foundation	9,564	37	2	35	0.4%
Total	12,757	174	27	147	1.2%

Money donor sample

Money donors were recruited conveniently through personal networks and a university student population at Queensland University of Technology (QUT). Data was collected between 22/10/2015 and 8/03/2016. A total of 138 attempted to complete the survey (see Table 7.16). However, 31 respondents were not eligible to complete the survey as they had not donated to a charity within one of the three categories outlined (i.e. medical research, family services, animal welfare). This resulted in a total useable sample size of n=107. An overall response rate could not be calculated. In relation to the three charity categories, 45.4% of money donors donated to medical research, 24.7% to family services, and 29.9% to animal welfare.

Table 7.16 Study 2B Money Donor Response Rate

	Total Contacted	Total Responses	Screened out	Total Complete	Response Rate
Total	NA	138	31	107	NA

7.4.2. Treatment of data

Missing data

Similar to the surveys administered for Study 2A, Key Survey software was used to develop the online surveys for Study 2B. As the survey was set-up to ensure respondents could not skip questions, there was no missing data present in the datasets. However, some responses did not meet necessary inclusion criteria, and were consequently removed from the dataset. For instance, some respondents reported their place of birth as opposed to their year of birth to the question 'What year were you born in?' which did not allow for respondents' age to be calculated to ensure it was within the 18 to 40 years age bracket. Based on exclusion criteria, a total of 36 respondents were removed from the dataset (see Table 7.17). This resulted in a final sample size of 340; with *n*=123 blood donors, *n*=120 volunteers, and *n*=97 money donors.

Table 7.17 Respondents Excluded from Study 2B Sample

	# of respondents removed*		
	Blood Donors	Volunteers	Money Donors
Sample size after screening criteria (n)	124	145	107
Reason for exclusion			
Have not volunteered for the NFP at least once		3	
Age (i.e. year born) is entered incorrectly	1	5	5
Respondent is over 40 years old		17	5
Total removed	*1*	*25*	*10*
Final sample size (n)	**123**	**120**	**97**

* Respondents removed because data did not meet inclusion criteria

Common method bias

The majority of questions in the survey were answered according to a 7-point Likert scale. The Harman single factor test was used to test whether common method bias threatened the validity of this study. It was found that 28.33% of the variance was explained by a single factor. Given that this is below the maximum threshold of 50%

(Podsakoff & Organ, 1986), it is concluded that common method bias did not impact the validity of this study and is unlikely to confound the interpretation of the results.

7.4.3. Sample characteristics

Sample demographic characteristics are outlined in Table 7.18 and sample donation history traits in Table 7.19. Overall, the average age of the sample is 25-26 years old, and the majority of respondents are located on the east coast of Australia. In particular, a large percentage of the volunteers and money donors are based in Queensland. This can be attributed to the data collection method of convenience for money donors, and some NFP organisations were Queensland based as well. There are also a much higher proportion of female respondents (70-80%) across all sample groups. The gender ratio for blood donors is consistent with that achieved for Study 2A. Further, Shehu et al. (2015) characterised both money donors and volunteers to be more likely female, which is reflected in the sample.

In relation to respondents' donation history (see Table 7.19), the majority of respondents (86.1%) have donated blood, time or money within the last six months. The sample consisted mostly of repeat blood donors (90.0%), with only 10% of the sample having only donated blood, time or money once (this was most prevalent in volunteers with 22.5% new donors). It is also interesting to note that 72.1% of the total sample is multi-type donors, meaning they donate in multiple ways. The largest group (25.9%) donate time and money, closely followed by those who donate blood, time and money (20.0%). These results mirror work by Shehu et al. (2015) who argue that an increasing portion of donors engage in more than one type of donation. Further, a much higher proportion of blood and money donors, than volunteers, report having someone else donate based on their recommendation. In addition to the sample characteristics outlined in Table 7.18 and 7.19, the survey also found that 41.7% of volunteers volunteer regularly (i.e. shift-based work), 56.7% volunteer episodically (i.e. one-off occasions), and 1.7% have recently joined but have not volunteered as yet. The following analyses were performed using the combined sample (n=340) of blood donors, volunteers and monetary donors.

Table 7.18 Study 2B Sample Demographic Characteristics

Variable	*Blood*	*Time*	*Money*	*Total*
Size (*n*)	123	120	97	340
Age				
Mean (sd.)	27.43 (4.047)	25.49 (5.207)	24.23 (4.700)	25.84 (4.829)
Range (years)	18 – 35	18 – 40	18 – 39	18 – 40
Gender				
Male	36 *(29.3%)*	25 (*20.8%*)	19 *(19.6%)*	80 (*23.5%*)
Female	87 *(70.7%)*	95 (*79.2%*)	78 *(80.4%)*	260 (*76.5%*)
Location				
Queensland	12 *(9.8%)*	60 (*50.0%*)	86 (*88.7%*)	158 (*46.5%*)
New South Wales	42 *(34.1%)*	10 (*8.3%*)	7 (*7.2%)*	59 (*17.4%*)
Australian Capital Territory	7 *(5.7%)*	1 (*0.8%*)	0	8 (*2.4%*)
Victoria	41 *(33.3%)*	14 (*11.7%*)	2 (*2.1%*)	57 (*16.8%*)
Tasmania	6 *(4.9%)*	0	0	6 (*1.8%*)
South Australia	5 *(4.1%)*	16 (*13.3%*)	1 (*1.0%*)	22 (*6.5%*)
Western Australia	8 *(6.5%)*	19 (*15.8%*)	1 (*1.0%*)	28 (*8.2%*)
Northern Territory	2 (*1.6%)*	0	0	2 (*0.6%*)
Work Status				
Full time	84 *(68.3%)*	53 (*44.2%*)	31 (*32.0%)*	168 (*49.4%*)
Part-time	11 *(8.9%)*	13 (*10.8%*)	29 (*29.9%*)	53 (*15.6%*)
Casual	22 *(17.9%)*	25 (*20.8%*)	24 (*24.7%*)	71 (*20.9%*)
Unemployed	6 *(4.9%)*	29 (*24.2%*)	13 (*13.4%*)	48 (*14.1%*)
Income				
Less than $30,000	23 *(18.7%)*	60 (50.0%)	50 (*51.5%*)	133 (*39.2%*)
$30,000 to $44,000	12 *(9.8%)*	11 (9.2%)	17 (*17.5%*)	40 (*11.8%*)
$45,000 to $54,000	15 *(12.2%)*	10 (8.3%)	10 (*10.3%*)	35 (*10.3%*)
$55,000 to $64,000	16 *(13.0%)*	10 (8.3%)	2 (*2.1%*)	28 (*8.3%*)
$65,000 to $74,000	18 *(14.6%)*	11 (9.2%)	5 (*5.2%*)	34 (*10.0%*)
$75,000 and above	39 *(31.7%)*	17 (14.2%)	13 (*13.4%*)	69 (*20.4%*)

Table 7.19 Study 2B Sample Donation History

Variable	*Blood*	*Time*	*Money*	*Total*
Size (*n*)	123	120	97	340
Last donation				
Less than 1 month ago	47 *(38.2%)*	62 (51.7%)	55 (*56.7%*)	164 (*48.2%*)
Between 1 and 6 months ago	72 *(58.5%)*	29 (24.2%)	28 (*28.9%*)	129 (*37.9%*)
Between 6 months and 1 year ago	4 *(3.3%)*	15 (12.5%)	11 (*11.3%*)	30 (*8.8%*)
More than 1 year ago	-	14 (11.7%)	3 (*3.1%*)	17 (*5.0%*)
Number of Donations				
1 (First time donor)	5 *(4.1%)*	27 (22.5%)	2 (*2.1%*)	34 (*10.0%*)
2	7 *(5.7%)*	15 (12.5%)	14 (*14.4%*)	36 (*10.6%*)
3-5	32 *(26.0%)*	17 (14.2%)	20 (*20.6%*)	69 (*20.3%*)
6-10	35 *(28.5%)*	11 (9.2%)	17 (*17.5%*)	63 (*18.5%*)
11-20	37 *(30.1%)*	8 (6.7%)	13 (*13.4%*)	58 (*17.1%*)
21 or more	7 *(5.7%)*	42 (35.0%)	31 (*32.0%*)	80 (*23.5%*)
Has anyone ever donated based on their recommendation?				
Yes	78 *(63.4%)*	45 (37.5%)	55 (*56.7%*)	178 (*52.4%*)
No	45 *(38.4%)*	75 (62.5%)	42 (*43.3%*)	162 (*47.6%*)
Single versus multi-type donor				
Donates blood only	23 *(18.7%)*	-	-	23 (*6.8%*)
Donates time only	-	37 (30.8%)	-	37 (*10.9%*)
Donates money only	-	-	35 (*36.1%*)	35 (*10.3%*)
Donates blood and money	48 *(39.0%)*	-	7 (*7.2%*)	55 (*16.2%*)
Donates blood and time	18 *(14.6%)*	16 (13.3%)	-	34 (*10.0%*)
Donates time and money	-	46 (38.3%)	42 (*43.3%*)	88 (*25.9%*)
Donates blood, time and money	34 *(27.6%)*	21 (17.5%)	13 (*13.4%*)	68 (*20.0%*)

7.4.4. Construct reliability

Internal consistency reliability tests were performed to assess measurement reliability; specifically Cronbach's Alpha coefficient and item-to-total correlations are reported (see Table 7.20). Social norms were conceptualised as three distinct types of norms (descriptive, injunctive and subjective) and reliability was tested separately for each construct. Results indicate that all items used to measure social norm constructs were reliable, with item-to-total correlation scores exceeding .30 and Cronbach's alpha scores over .60 (Hair et al., 2010).

For all other constructs results indicate that, for the most part, all items used to measure model constructs were reliable (Hair et al., 2010). However, two items are subject to removal. For social risk, the item-to-total correlation for the item 'If I shared an act of donation on Facebook within the next 12 months, I think I would be held in higher esteem by my friends' (.120) is well below the recommended threshold of .30. If the item is removed, the alpha coefficient would be considered acceptable as it is above .60 (Hair et al., 2010); from α =.504 to α =.677. Therefore, this item was removed. Similarly for breadth of self-disclosure, the item-to-total correlation for 'My Facebook posts tend to centre around one subject of interest' (.168) is below the recommended threshold of .30. The item was removed to improve the alpha coefficient; from α =.741 to α =.804.

Table 7.20 Study 2B Construct Reliability

Construct Items	Item-to-total Correlation	α if Item Deleted
Descriptive Norms		**.914**
Many people on Facebook participate in sharing an act of donation	.809	.886
Many people on Facebook are willing to share an act of donation	.747	.907
Sharing donation activity is a common behaviour that people on Facebook engage in	.845	.873
Many people on Facebook share donation activity	.815	.884
Injunctive Norms		**.880**
It is appropriate for people to share donation activity on Facebook	.688	.907
Society in general considers sharing an act of donation on Facebook appropriate	.832	.774
Most people in general consider sharing donation activity on Facebook appropriate	.792	.808
Subjective Norms		**.925**
People who are important to me would want me to share an act of donation on Facebook	.833	.900
People who are important to me would approve of me sharing donation activity on Facebook	.816	.906
People who are important to me would support me sharing an act of donation on Facebook	.838	.900
People who are important to me would encourage me to share an act of donation on Facebook	.827	.902
Social Risk		**.504**
*If I shared an act of donation on Facebook within the next 12 months, I think I would be held in higher esteem by my friends**	*.120*	*.677*
The thought of sharing donation activity on Facebook within the next 12 months causes me concern because some friends would think I was just being showy	.465	.113
Sharing an act of donation on Facebook within the next 12 months would cause me to be thought of as being foolish by some people whose opinion I value	.414	.245
Involvement		**.892**
Important/ unimportant*	.544	.887
Boring/ interesting	.673	.878
Relevant/ irrelevant*	.601	.883
Exciting/ unexciting*	.663	.879
Means nothing/ means a lot to me	.691	.877
Appealing/ unappealing *	.735	.873
Fascinating/ mundane	.636	.881
Worthless/ valuable	.621	.882
Involving/ uninvolving*	.632	.882
Not needed/ needed	.552	.886
Advocacy		**.848**
In the future I would share donation activity for [NFP] to talk up the charity to my friends	.764	.786

In the future I would share donation activity for [NFP] as it enhances my Facebook profile	.446	.872
In the future I would share donation activity for [NFP] in order to spread the good word about this charity	.686	.809
In the future I would give [NFP] a lot of positive WOM online	.688	.808
In the future I would recommend [NFP] to friends and family on Facebook	.718	.799
Self-Image Congruency		**.829**
Donating X reflects who I am	.646	.788
I feel a personal connection to donating X	.649	.787
I think donating X helps me become the type of person I want to be	.649	.789
Donating X suits me well	.688	.771
Breadth of Self-Disclosure		**.741**
My Facebook posts are limited to just a few specific topics*	.495	.700
My Facebook posts range over a wide variety of topics	.755	.592
Once I get started writing on Facebook, I move easily from one topic to another	.423	.725
My Facebook posts address a variety of subjects	.731	.603
*My Facebook posts tend to centre around one subject of interest**	*.168*	*.804*
Depth of Self-Disclosure		**.844**
I intimately disclose who I really am, openly and fully on Facebook	.553	.849
Once I get started, my self-disclosures on Facebook last a long time	.634	.817
I often disclose intimate, personal things about myself on Facebook without hesitation	.750	.788
I feel that I sometimes do not control my self-disclosure of personal or intimate things I tell about myself on Facebook	.609	.823
Once I get started, I intimately and fully reveal myself in my self-disclosures on Facebook	.775	.786
Intention to Share		**.951**
I am willing to share the donation badge on my Facebook page	.853	.960
I am likely to share the donation badge on my Facebook page	.914	.914
I would share the donation badge to my personal Facebook page after donating	.923	.907

Note: * = item is reverse scored

7.4.5. Construct validity

To determine construct validity of the questionnaire and confirm the factorial structure of the measures, factor analysis using SPSS and CFA using AMOS were conducted using the combined sample data collected.

Factor Analysis

Due to using previously validated scales and predefined dimensions, principal components analysis extraction was specified with direct oblimin rotation as per SEM requirements (Byrne, 2013). The extraction of factors for all constructs except social norms were based on Eigenvalues greater than one. A three factor solution was specified for social norms. Items were first tested to investigate appropriateness of the sample size (*n=340)*. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was relatively high for almost all constructs (see Table 7.21), confirming the sample size is suitable for factor analysis. Although the KMO score for Social Risk was quite low, a score of .50 and above is considered suitable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Williams, Brown, & Onsman, 2010). Furthermore, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity indicates the items are sufficiently interrelated ($p < 0.001$, see Table 7.21) and are able to support a meaningful factor solution (Allen & Bennett, 2010).

Table 7.21 Study 2B Construct KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

Construct	**KMO**	**Bartlett's Test of Sphericity**	
		Chi-Square	*df* (sig.)
Social Norms *(Descriptive, injunctive and subjective)*	.871	3200.408	55 (.000)
Social Risk	.500	104.994	1 (.000)
Involvement	.904	1611.653	45 (.000)
Advocacy	.806	672.604	6 (.000)
Self-Image Congruency	.796	496.998	6 (.000)
Tendency for Self-disclosure *(Breadth and depth)*	.793	1303.897	28 (.000)
Intention to Share	.752	1081.933	3 (.000)

All item communalities and factor loading scores for involvement are shown in Table 7.22, and all other constructs in Table 7.23. To ensure construct validity, item factor

loading scores were required to exceed the .60 threshold (Hair et al., 2010). The output made evident that two items should be removed. The advocacy item 'In the future I would share donation activity for [NFP] as it enhances my Facebook profile', was removed due to a low extracted communalities score of .347 (Mooi & Sarstedt, 2011) and factor loading score below the minimum threshold (.589). Removal of this item also improves internal reliability. The item 'Once I get started writing on Facebook, I move easily from one topic to another' cross loaded over breadth and depth of self-disclosure two factor solution and factor loadings for both factors was below .60 (.476 and .477 respectively). It was therefore omitted from the analysis to produce a workable factor solution.

After re-running the analysis, results demonstrate that all constructs (except involvement) achieved a unidimensional solution and all scale items had high construct validity, with factor loadings exceeding the recommended threshold. The factor analysis produced a two-factor solution for involvement (see Table 7.26); representing an importance (cognitive) aspect and an interest (affective) aspect. This two-dimensional conceptualisation of involvement is consistent with the literature, where researchers have characterised involvement by the importance and interest placed on a product or brand (Park & Young, 1986; Russell-Bennett et al., 2007).

Table 7.22 Involvement Construct Validity Factor Analysis

Construct Items	**Communalities**	**Factor Loading**	**Factor Loading**
Involvement		*Interest*	*Importance*
Important/ unimportant*	.574		.786
Boring/ interesting	.665	.801	
Relevant/ irrelevant*	.567		.696
Exciting/ unexciting*	.718	.889	
Means nothing/ means a lot to me	.674		.713
Appealing/ unappealing *	.688	.720	
Fascinating/ mundane	.663	.851	
Worthless/ valuable	.679		.833
Involving/ uninvolving*	.570	.701	
Not needed/ needed	.589		.796
***Variance explained* =**		***51.26%***	***12.61%***

Note: * = item is reverse scored

Table 7.23 Study 2B Construct Validity Factor Analysis

Construct Items	Communalities	Factor Loading
Descriptive Norms (*Variance explained = 19.39%*)		
Many people on Facebook participate in sharing an act of donation	.814	.905
Many people on Facebook are willing to share an act of donation	.746	.779
Sharing donation activity is a common behaviour that people on Facebook engage in	.847	.922
Many people on Facebook share donation activity	.812	.897
Injunctive Norms (*Variance explained = 8.14%*)		
It is appropriate for people to share donation activity on Facebook	.695	.561
Society in general considers sharing an act of donation on Facebook appropriate	.894	.930
Most people in general consider sharing donation activity on Facebook appropriate	.856	.865
Subjective Norms (*Variance explained = 54.53%*)		
People who are important to me would want me to share an act of donation on Facebook	.866	.940
People who are important to me would approve of me sharing donation activity on Facebook	.816	.708
People who are important to me would support me sharing an act of donation on Facebook	.815	.743
People who are important to me would encourage me to share an act of donation on Facebook	.865	.962
Social Risk (*Variance explained = 75.85%*)		
The thought of sharing donation activity on Facebook within the next 12 months causes me concern because some friends would think I was just being showy	.759	.871
Sharing an act of donation on Facebook within the next 12 months would cause me to be thought of as being foolish by some people whose opinion I value	.759	.871
Advocacy (*Variance explained = 72.21%*)		
In the future I would share donation activity for [NFP] to talk up the charity to my friends	.768	.876
In the future I would share donation activity for [NFP] as it enhances my Facebook profile (removed)	-	-
In the future I would share donation activity for [NFP] in order to spread the good word about this charity	.680	.825
In the future I would give [NFP] a lot of positive WOM online	.707	.841
In the future I would recommend [NFP] to friends and family on Facebook	.733	.856
Self-Image Congruency (*Variance explained = 66.41%*)		
Donating X reflects who I am	.644	.803
I feel a personal connection to donating X	.660	.812
I think X helps me become the type of person I want to be	.649	.806
Donating X suits me well	.703	.838

Breadth of Self-Disclosure (*Variance explained = 21.00%)*		
My Facebook posts are limited to just a few specific topics*	.559	.774
My Facebook posts range over a wide variety of topics	.822	.879
Once I get started writing on Facebook, I move easily from one topic to another (removed)	-	-
My Facebook posts address a variety of subjects	.787	.830
Depth of Self-Disclosure (*Variance explained = 46.70%*)		
I intimately disclose who I really am, openly and fully on Facebook	.481	.639
Once I get started, my self-disclosures on Facebook last a long time	.584	.698
I often disclose intimate, personal things about myself on Facebook without hesitation	.748	.868
I feel that I sometimes do not control my self-disclosure of personal or intimate things I tell about myself on Facebook	.640	.829
Once I get started, I intimately and fully reveal myself in my self-disclosures on Facebook	.793	.904
Intention to Share (*Variance explained = 91.04%*)		
I am willing to share the donation badge on my Facebook page	.870	.933
I am likely to share the donation badge on my Facebook page	.927	.963
I would share the donation badge to my personal Facebook page after donating	.934	.967

Note: * = item is reverse scored

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

In order to validate construct measurement models, CFA was performed using AMOS. To demonstrate model fit, the measurement model had to meet the requirements of five fit indices (see Table 7.24). Based on the model fit statistics, the initial measurement model specified demonstrated excellent fit to the data, with all items loading strongly onto their respective construct (see Table 7.25).

Table 7.24 Study 2B Full Measurement Model Fit Statistics

	CMIN/DF	***p***	**CFI**	**RMSEA**	**SRMR**
Threshold	< 3 = good fit	< .05	>.90 = good fit	.05 to .10 = moderate fit	< .08 = good fit
Source	Hair et al. (2010)	Hair et al. (2010)	Hair et al. (2010)	MacCallum et al. (1996)	Hu & Bentler (1999)
Initial Model	2.069	.000	.914	.060	.056

Table 7.25 Study 2B Construct Validity: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Construct	Factor Loading
Descriptive Norms	
Many people on Facebook participate in sharing an act of donation	.850
Many people on Facebook are willing to share an act of donation	.789
Sharing donation activity is a common behaviour that people on Facebook engage in	.903
Many people on Facebook share donation activity	.868
Injunctive Norms	
It is appropriate for people to share donation activity on Facebook	.757
Society in general considers sharing an act of donation on Facebook appropriate	.908
Most people in general consider sharing donation activity on Facebook appropriate	.896
Subjective Norms	
People who are important to me would want me to share an act of donation on Facebook	.822
People who are important to me would approve of me sharing donation activity on Facebook	.851
People who are important to me would support me sharing an act of donation on Facebook	.869
People who are important to me would encourage me to share an act of donation on Facebook	.823
Social Risk	
The thought of sharing donation activity on Facebook within the next 12 months causes me concern because some friends would think I was just being showy	.791
Sharing an act of donation on Facebook within the next 12 months would cause me to be thought of as being foolish by some people whose opinion I value	.653
Involvement	
Important/ unimportant*	.570
Boring/ interesting	.723
Relevant/ irrelevant*	.620
Exciting/ unexciting*	.742
Means nothing/ means a lot to me	.717
Appealing/ unappealing *	.788
Fascinating/ mundane	.685
Worthless/ valuable	.630
Involving/ uninvolving*	.680
Not needed/ needed	.594
Advocacy	
In the future I would share donation activity for [NFP] to talk up the charity to my friends	.853
In the future I would share donation activity for [NFP] in order to spread the good word about this charity	.766
In the future I would give [NFP] a lot of positive WOM online	.762
In the future I would recommend [NFP] to friends and family on Facebook	.791

Self-Image Congruency	
Donating X reflects who I am	.705
I feel a personal connection to donating X	.764
I think X helps me become the type of person I want to be	.704
Donating X suits me well	.794
Breadth of Self-Disclosure	
My Facebook posts are limited to just a few specific topics*	.517
My Facebook posts range over a wide variety of topics	.909
My Facebook posts address a variety of subjects	.867
Depth of Self-Disclosure	
I intimately disclose who I really am, openly and fully on Facebook	.578
Once I get started, my self-disclosures on Facebook last a long time	.657
I often disclose intimate, personal things about myself on Facebook without hesitation	.832
I feel that I sometimes do not control my self-disclosure of personal or intimate things I tell about myself on Facebook	.732
Once I get started, I intimately and fully reveal myself in my self-disclosures on Facebook	.890
Intentions to Share	
I am willing to share the donation badge on my Facebook page	.873
I am likely to share the donation badge on my Facebook page	.953
I would share the donation badge to my personal Facebook page after donating	.967

Convergent and Discriminant Validity

Convergent validity was assessed by the average variance extracted (AVE), while discriminant validity was examined by comparing the AVE for each construct and the squared correlation of each pair of constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). AVE, correlation and squared correlation results are shown in Table 7.26. All of the constructs (except involvement which is only slightly under the threshold) demonstrate adequate convergent validity (AVE > .50; Hair et al., 2010). Further, all of the constructs demonstrate discriminant validity with AVE scores higher than squared correlation coefficients.

Table 7.26 Study 2B Convergent and Discriminant Validity

	AVE	DN	IN	SN	SR	INV	AD	SIC	BSD	DSD
DN	.73	NA								
IN	.73	r =.42 r^2=.18								
SN	.71	r =.40 r^2=.16	r =.71 r^2=.51							
SR	.53	r=-.08 r^2=.01	r=-.34 r^2=.12	r=-.34 r^2=.11						
INV	.46	r =.13 r^2=.02	r =.23 r^2=.05	r =.27 r^2=.07	r =-.05 r^2=.00					
AD	.63	r =.28 r^2=.08	r =.49 r^2=.24	r =.62 r^2=.38	r =-.21 r^2=.04	r =.55 r^2=.30				
SIC	.55	r =.31 r^2=.09	r =.41 r^2=.17	r =.43 r^2=.18	r =-.07 r^2=.00	r =.46 r^2=.21	r =.50 r^2=.25			
BSD	.62	r =.09 r^2=.01	r =.17 r^2=.03	r =.21 r^2=.05	r =-.18 r^2=.03	r =.15 r^2=.02	r =.28 r^2=.08	r =.20 r^2=.04		
DSD	.56	r =.16 r^2=.03	r =.10 r^2=.01	r =.20 r^2=.04	r =-.16 r^2=.02	r =.09 r^2=.01	r =.18 r^2=.03	r =.16 r^2=.03	r =.35 r^2=.12	
INT	.87	r =.13 r^2=.02	r =.39 r^2=.15	r =.49 r^2=.24	r =-.28 r^2=.08	r =.35 r^2=.12	r =.63 r^2=.39	r =.37 r^2=.14	r =.30 r^2=.09	r =.17 r^2=.03

Note: DN = Descriptive Norms, IN = Injunctive Norms, SN = Subjective Norms, SR = Social Risk, INV = Involvement, AD = Advocacy, SIC = Self-Image Congruency, BSD = Breadth of Self-Disclosure, DSD = Depth of Self-Disclosure, INT = Intention to Share
r = original correlation score, r^2 = squared correlation score

7.5. Study 2B Hypothesis Testing

The following sections outline analyses performed to answer RQ2, *why do donors choose to share (or not share) donation recognition on social networking sites?;* and RQ3, *what is the effect of donation category on donor responses to online donor appreciation?* The construct means and correlations are reported (section 7.5.1). Hypotheses 1 to 9 (H1-9) were tested using SEM (section 7.5.2) to address RQ2. Post-hoc analysis was also performed using ANOVA (section 7.5.3) to test for differences between donation category and model constructs (RQ3).

7.5.1. Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics (n=340) for the model constructs, including the means, standard deviations, Cronbach's alpha and correlations are outlined in Table 7.27.

Respondents reported, on average, higher injunctive and subjective norms than descriptive norms, which demonstrate that sharing donation activity on Facebook is socially acceptable but not widely prevalent on individuals' social networks. The social risk mean was below the median, indicating the perceived social risk is generally low when sharing donation activity on Facebook. Involvement with the charity, advocacy and self-image congruency were scored quite high, whereas individuals reported a low tendency for self-disclosure on Facebook with breadth and depth of self-disclosure scores fairly low. Significant correlations were achieved between all independent variables and intention to share donor recognition (dependent variable), with advocacy having the highest correlation (r=.63). Together, these results provide preliminary support for the hypothesised relationships and model. Multi-collinearity was also assessed by examining the inter-correlations between the constructs. As the range of inter-correlation scores (r = -.05 to r = .71) is below the threshold of ±.85 (Allen & Bennett, 2010), it can be concluded that multicollinearity did not pose a threat to the analysis.

Table 7.27 Study 2B Descriptive Statistics (total sample)

	DN	IN	SN	SR	INV	AD	SIC	BSD	DSD	INT
DN	**(.914)**									
IN	.42**	**(.880)**								
SN	.40**	.71**	**(.925)**							
SR	-.08	-.34**	-.34**	**(.677)**						
INV	.13*	.23**	.27**	-.05	**(.892)**					
AD	.28**	.49**	.62**	-.21**	.55**	**(.872)**				
SIC	.31**	.41**	.43**	-.07	.46**	.50**	**(.829)**			
BSD	.09	.17**	.21**	-.18**	.15*	.28**	.20**	**(.798)**		
DSD	.16*	.10	.20**	-.16*	.09	.18**	.16*	.35**	**(.951)**	
INT	.13*	.39**	.49**	-.28**	.35**	.63**	.37**	.30**	.17*	**(.844)**
Scale	1 – 7	1 – 7	1 – 7	1 – 7	1 - 7	1 – 7	1 – 7	1 – 7	1 – 7	1 – 7
Mean	3.80	5.10	4.85	3.17	5.87	5.04	5.12	3.55	2.19	4.33
StdDev.	1.47	1.32	1.51	1.58	0.86	1.36	1.27	1.52	1.15	1.88

Note: DN = Descriptive Norms, IN = Injunctive Norms, SN = Subjective Norms, SR = Social Risk, INV = Involvement, AD = Advocacy, SIC = Self-Image Congruency, BSD = Breadth of Self-Disclosure, DSD = Depth of Self-Disclosure, INT = Intention to Share

** p<.05; ** p<.001*

Correlation scores between model constructs and sample characteristic variables were also estimated and are outlined in Appendix F. Interestingly, as donors' age increase, subjective norms (r=.13, p<.05), advocacy (r=.13, p<.05), self-image congruency (r=.12, p<.05), breadth of self-disclosure (r=.16, p<.05) and intentions to share (r=.20, p<.05) increase, while social risk (r=-.19, p<.05) decreases. Further, correlations suggested that those who have had others donate blood, time or money based on their recommendation, reported higher descriptive norms (r=-.14, p<.05), self-image congruency (r=-.15, p<.05), breadth (r=-.21, p<.05) and depth of self-disclosure (r=-.12, p<.05) and intentions to share (r=-.12, p<.05).

7.5.2. Hypothesis testing (H1-9): SEM structural model

The initial structural model indicated poor fit to the data (see Table 7.28) with almost all fit indices exceeding recommended thresholds. To improve model fit, the model was respecified on statistical and theoretical grounds as recommended by MacCallum et al. (1992) and Byrne (2010). Model re-specifications included adding a path from subjective norm to advocacy, from depth of self-disclosure to social risk, and from breadth of disclosure to social risk. The final structural model demonstrated good fit to the data with fit statistics of *CMIN/DF* = 2.898, p=.005, *CFI* = .988, *RMSEA* = .075 and *SRMR* = .024.

Table 7.28 Study 2B Full Structural Model Fit Statistics

	CMIN/DF	***p***	**CFI**	**RMSEA**	**SRMR**
Threshold	< 3 = good fit	< .05	>.90 = good fit	.05 to .10 = moderate fit	< .08 = good fit
Source	Hair et al. (2010)	Hair et al. (2010)	Hair et al. (2010)	MacCallum et al. (1996)	Hu & Bentler (1999)
Initial Model	19.465	.000	.830	.233	.113
Final Model	2.898	.005	.988	.075	.024

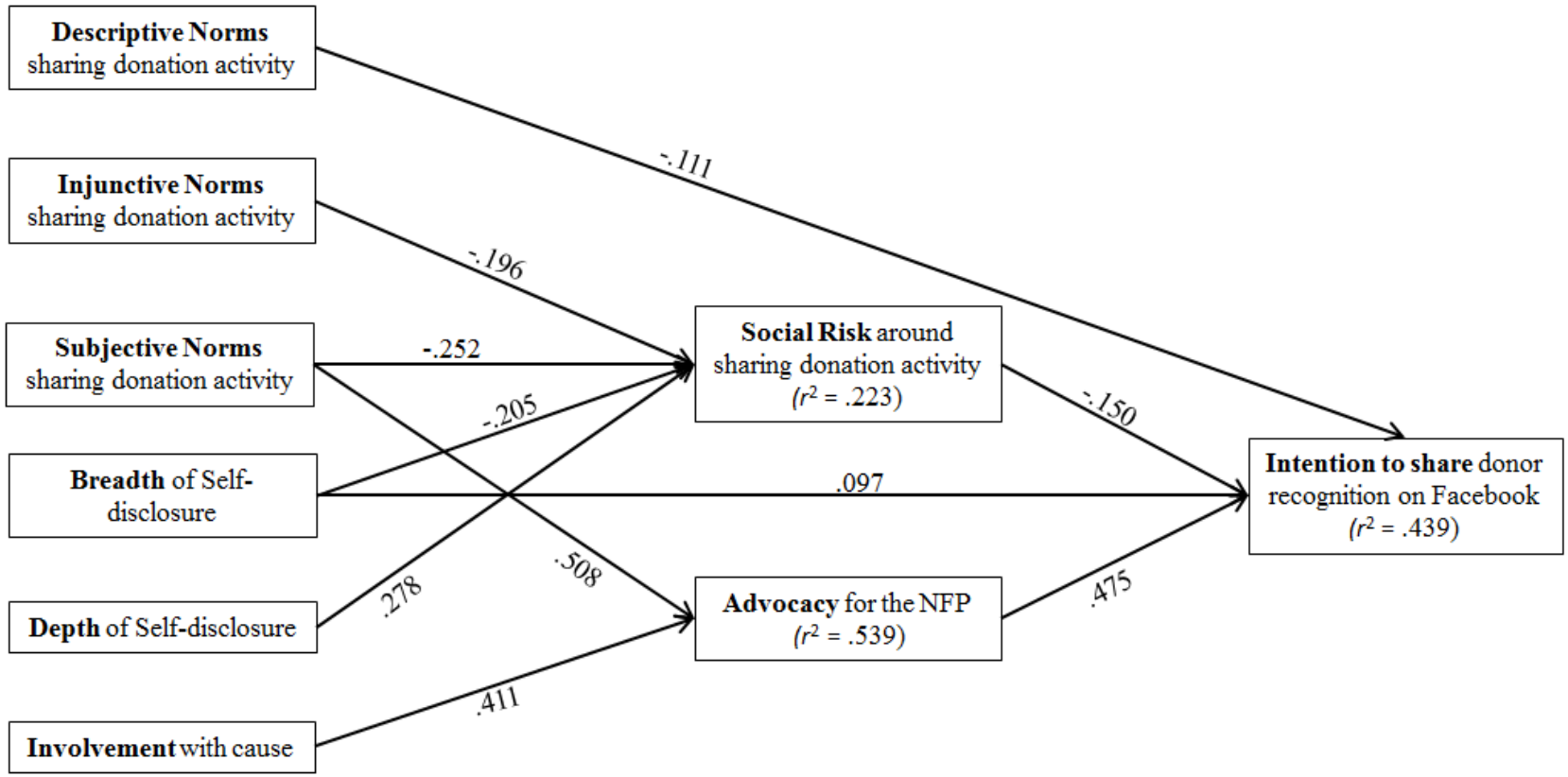
The output of the structural model revealed that seven out of fourteen hypothesised relationships were supported by the data at *t-value ≥ 1.96* and *p<.05* (see Figure 7.2 and Table 7.29), and the model explained 43.9% of the variance in intentions to share (r^2=.439). As predicted in Chapter Five, positive injunctive norms (β=-.196; H1b) and subjective norms (β=-.252; H1c) were found to reduce a donor's perceived social risk

around sharing donation activity on Facebook, yet descriptive norms (β=.069, *ns*; H1a) and involvement (β=.060, *ns*; H2) were not significant predictors of social risk. The analysis also revealed a high tendency for breadth of self-disclosure (i.e. individual discusses a wide range of topics with less detail) was associated with lower social risk (β=-.205), whereas a high tendency for depth of self-disclosure (i.e. individual discusses only a few specific topics in detail) was associated with higher social risk (β=.278). Further involvement (β=.411; H3) and subjective norms (β=.508) were found to positively influence advocacy. In relation to intention to share donor recognition on Facebook, only descriptive norms (β=-.111; H4a), social risk (β=-.150; H5), advocacy (β=.475; H7) and breadth of self-disclosure (β=.097; H9a) were significant predictors; with advocacy having the strongest predictive capacity (β=.475).

Table 7.29 Study 2B Hypothesis Summary and Path Estimates from Final Model

H0	**Hypothesised Path**	**B**	***C.R. (t)***	***P***	**Supported at *p*<.05**
H1a	Descriptive Norms → Social Risk	.069	1.284	.199	Unsupported
H1b	Injunctive Norms → Social Risk	-.196	-2.797	.005	Supported
H1c	Subjective Norms → Social Risk	-.252	-3.551	.000	Supported
H2	Involvement → Social Risk	.060	1.195	.232	Unsupported
H3	Involvement → Advocacy	.411	10.737	.000	Supported
H4a	Descriptive Norms → Intention to Share	-.111	-2.413	.016	Partially Supported
H4b	Injunctive Norms → Intention to Share	.043	.701	.483	Unsupported
H4c	Subjective Norms → Intention to Share	.105	1.526	.127	Unsupported
H5	Social Risk → Intention to Share	-.150	-2.750	.006	Supported
H6	Involvement → Intention to Share	.013	.250	.803	Unsupported
H7	Advocacy → Intention to Share	.475	7.931	.000	Supported
H8	Self-Image Congruency → Intention to Share	.065	1.297	.195	Unsupported
H9a	Breadth of Self-disclosure → Intention to Share	.097	2.137	.033	Supported
H9b	Depth of Self-disclosure → Intention to Share	.048	1.047	.295	Unsupported
	Un-hypothesised Path	**B**	***C.R. (t)***	***p***	
	Subjective Norms → Advocacy	.508	13.272	.000	
	Depth of Self-disclosure → Social Risk	.278	5.345	.000	
	Breadth of Self-disclosure → Social Risk	-.205	-3.939	.000	

Figure 7.2 Study 2B Final Structural Model



Note: Significant relationships outlined only

7.5.3. Study 2B Category of Donation: ANOVA

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to investigate differences between the category of donation (blood, n=123; time n=120; or money, n=97) and donors' social norms (descriptive, injunctive and subjective), perceived social risk, involvement with the cause, advocacy for the NFP, self-image congruency, tendency for self-disclosure (breadth and depth) and intention to share donor recognition on Facebook. Lavene's statistic was non-significant for all constructs except injunctive norm, $F(2, 337)=3.313$, $p=.038$, and involvement, $F(2, 337)=7.190$, $p=.038$; and thus the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not violated for most constructs. Mean differences were identified between donors of time, money and blood (see Figure 7.3).

Figure 7.3 Construct Means Comparison between Donor Groups

The ANOVAs were statistically significant for all constructs except breadth ($F(2, 337)=2.266$, $p=.105$) and depth of self-disclosure ($F(2, 337)=1.438$, $p=.239$); indicating that differences exist between the category of donation and model constructs. ANOVA results are outlined in Table 7.30. Post hoc analyses were conducted using Games-Howell procedure for injunctive norms and involvement (as the homogeneity of variance assumption was unsupported for these constructs) and Tukey's HSD test for all other constructs.

Overall, the results showed that volunteers reported significantly higher descriptive norms ($\bar{x}$=4.14, *SD*=1.52) than blood donors ($\bar{x}$=3.52, *SD*=1.38), indicating a much higher prevalence of sharing volunteer activity on Facebook. However, sharing volunteer and blood donation activity on Facebook is more socially approved than sharing donations of money, as volunteers and blood donors reported significantly higher injunctive and subjective norms than monetary donors. Social risk around sharing donations on Facebook is also significantly higher for monetary donors ($\bar{x}$=3.71, *SD*=1.53) than time ($\bar{x}$=3.09, *SD*=1.53) or blood ($\bar{x}$=2.81, *SD*=1.55). Volunteers and blood donors reported significantly higher levels of involvement with the cause and advocacy for the NFP than monetary donors; indicating that volunteers and blood donors are more willing engage in generating awareness for the NFP and recruiting new donors. Lastly, volunteers ($\bar{x}$=4.43, *SD*=1.75) and blood donors ($\bar{x}$=4.84, *SD*=1.81) reported significantly higher intentions to share donor recognition on Facebook subsequent to making a donation than monetary donors ($\bar{x}$=3.59, *SD*=1.91).

Table 7.30 ANOVA and Post-hoc Analysis Results (Comparing Model Constructs between Category of Donation)

				ANOVA Results			**Post-hoc Analyses** (between group comparison)					
Construct	Sample	Mean ($\bar{x}$)	SD	*df*	F	*p*	Group	$\bar{x}$ dif.	*P*	Group	$\bar{x}$ dif.	*p*
Descriptive Norms	Money	3.74	1.46	(2, 337)	5.528	**.004**	Blood	.218	.512	Time	-.395	.116
	Blood	3.52	1.38				Money	-.218	.512	Time	-.613	**.003**
	Time	4.14	1.52				Money	.395	.116	Blood	.613	**.003**
Injunctive Norms	Money	4.41	1.37	(2, 337)	21.160	**.000**	Blood	-.925	**.000**	Time	-1.017	**.000**
	Blood	5.33	1.26				Money	.925	**.000**	Time	-.092	.820
	Time	5.42	1.12				Money	1.017	**.000**	Blood	.092	.820
Subjective Norms	Money	4.19	1.52	(2, 337)	13.886	**.000**	Blood	-.882	**.000**	Time	-.957	**.000**
	Blood	5.08	1.32				Money	.882	**.000**	Time	-.075	.915
	Time	5.15	1.54				Money	.957	**.000**	Blood	.075	.915
Social Risk	Money	3.71	1.53	(2, 337)	9.484	**.000**	Blood	.898	**.000**	Time	.620	**.009**
	Blood	2.81	1.55				Money	-.898	**.000**	Time	-.279	.336
	Time	3.09	1.53				Money	-.620	**.009**	Blood	.279	.336
Involvement	Money	5.59	0.88	(2, 337)	7.590	**.001**	Blood	-.432	**.000**	Time	-.335	**.023**
	Blood	6.03	0.66				Money	.432	**.000**	Time	.098	.633
	Time	5.93	0.98				Money	.335	**.023**	Blood	-.098	.633
Advocacy	Money	4.54	1.33	(2, 337)	10.010	**.000**	Blood	-.769	**.000**	Time	-.633	**.002**
	Blood	5.31	1.28				Money	.769	**.000**	Time	.136	.704
	Time	5.17	1.37				Money	.633	**.002**	Blood	-.136	.704
Self-Image Congruency	Money	4.35	1.22	(2, 337)	33.611	**.000**	Blood	-.871	**.000**	Time	-1.28	**.000**
	Blood	5.22	1.11				Money	.871	**.000**	Time	-.412	**.016**
	Time	5.64	1.16				Money	1.28	**.000**	Blood	.412	**.016**
Intention to Share	Money	3.59	1.91	(2, 337)	12.813	**.000**	Blood	-1.24	**.000**	Time	-.831	**.003**
	Blood	4.84	1.81				Money	1.24	**.000**	Time	.410	.187
	Time	4.43	1.75				Money	.831	**.003**	Blood	-.410	.187

Note: Breadth of Self-Disclosure and Depth of Self-Disclosure were excluded from the table as no significant differences between groups were found.

7.6. Conclusion

In summary, Chapter Seven presented the results of Study 2A and 2B; consisting of two online surveys each addressing separate research questions. The results of Study 2A provided support for seven out of 11 hypotheses proposed to address RQ1, and Study 2B supported seven out of 14 hypothesised relationships for RQ2. ANOVAs for RQ3 also revealed significant differences between the category of donation (money, time and blood) and predictors of sharing donor recognition on Facebook. The following chapter (Chapter Eight) discusses the combined findings of Study One and Study Two (A and B) in relation to addressing both research questions. Further the theoretical and practical implications of both studies are discussed. Limitations of the thesis and future research directions are also outlined.

Chapter Eight: Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

Despite a limited understanding of how donor appreciation increases donation activity, NFPs often provide appreciation strategies to motivate donor action, and are beginning to utilise online platforms to do so. For this thesis, a mixed-methods approach was used with a two stage research design to qualitatively and quantitatively investigate the research questions. Overall the aim of this thesis was threefold. First, this work identifies the underlying processes that explain the pre-established relationship between donor appreciation (acknowledgement and recognition) and repeat donation activity within an online context. Second, in order for online donor recognition to influence repeat donation activity, such recognition needs to be shared to SNSs by donors. Therefore, this thesis also identifies motivators and deterrents of sharing donor recognition. Lastly, there is evidence that motivational differences exist between categories of donation (blood, time and money). Consequently this research determines whether differences also exist between category of donation and the outcomes and predictors of online donor appreciation.

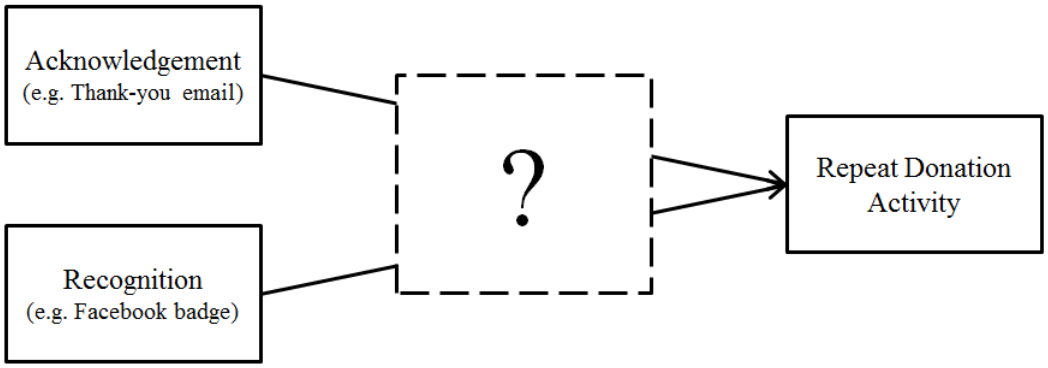
Chapter Four presented the qualitative analysis and results for Study One from which two theoretical models were developed. Hypotheses were then developed in Chapter Five, with the analysis and results for Study Two presented in Chapter Seven. In summary, seven out of ten hypotheses were supported for RQ1 and seven out of fourteen hypotheses were supported for RQ2. Differences between categories of donation were present for determinants of sharing donor recognition, but not the outcome process after receiving online donor appreciation (RQ3). The final chapter, Chapter Eight, discusses the overall findings of the thesis followed by the theoretical contributions and practical implications, and lastly limitations and future research opportunities are discussed.

8.2 Understanding the Effect of Online Donor Appreciation on Donation Behaviour

RQ1: How does online donor acknowledgement and recognition stimulate repeat donation behaviour?

Existing research has established a mostly positive relationship between receiving donor appreciation (acknowledgement and recognition) and repeat donation activity (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998; Lacetara & Macis, 2010; Merchant et al., 2010). However, this research sought to contribute to a nascent body of research addressing how this relationship is formed (see Figure 8.1), specifically via online platforms that provide individuals a new level of connectedness and interaction (Steffes & Burgee, 2009). Using principles of identity theory, this research has identified several underlying processes that explain the relationship between receiving online donor appreciation (acknowledgment and recognition) and repeat donation behaviour.

Figure 8.1 RQ1 Research Gap



To ensure consistency between an action and identity, individuals undertake identity verification. Within the identity verification process, individuals appraise their actions in relation to identity standards (Stets & Carter, 2011). Such appraisals are informed by perceptual inputs which provide cues as to whether congruency between an action and an identity is achieved (Laverie et al., 2002). This research found online donor acknowledgement (i.e. thank-you email) and recognition (i.e. Facebook badge) to be useful inputs informing donors' self-and reflected appraisal. Such formalised communication can assist donors to evaluate their donation behaviour in relation to relevant identity standards beyond the behaviour as a sole input. Yet, the type of online

donor appreciation offered only affects donors' reflected appraisal, not self-appraisal (see section 8.2.1). Four marketing outcomes were identified to result from donors' self- and reflected appraisal; accountability, emotional value, commitment and self-esteem (see section 8.2.2). Interestingly, emotional value and accountability were not found to directly influence repeat donation intentions, but rather commitment, which in turn was the only significant predictor of intentions to donate (8.2.3). Further, increased self-esteem appeared to be an outcome on its own of self-appraisal; independent of intentions to donate again. These results are further discussed in the following sections.

8.2.1 Donor recognition affects reflected appraisal but not self-appraisal

While both donor acknowledgement and recognition appear to be effective means of influencing repeat donations, each was found to inform donors' appraisals differently. From the qualitative findings of Study One, acknowledgement appeared to more closely influence an individual's self-appraisal (i.e. individual evaluation of identity related behaviour). Instead, recognition (e.g. Facebook badge) informed reflected appraisals (i.e. perceived evaluation of others) through a feedback mechanism. Recognition alone did not affect donors' reflected appraisal, rather it was the presence (or absence) of feedback received as a result of sharing donor recognition that informed reflected appraisals. These results were consistent across respondents who had donated blood, time and/or money.

When tested empirically, one group of blood donors were presented with a thank-you email only (acknowledgement scenario). The other group of blood donors were presented with a thank-you email which contained a link to share a badge to Facebook and were told this badge was shared and received positive feedback from the social network (recognition scenario). The data showed donors in the acknowledgement scenario and those in the recognition scenario reported similar positive self-appraisals. In line with the assumptions of reinforcement theory (Shields, 2007), donor acknowledgement positively reinforces donation activity as both groups received online acknowledgement in the form of a thank you email and reported positive self-appraisals as a NFP supporter. Therefore, there are no differences in self-appraisal depending on the type of donor appreciation (private or public) provided to donors.

However, donors in the recognition scenario reported significantly more positive reflected appraisals than those in the acknowledgement scenario. These results support the qualitative findings, demonstrating the addition of online recognition and actual positive feedback (e.g. likes and supportive comments) from socially significant others improves donors' reflected appraisals as a NFP supporter. This is because such positive feedback indicates approval of the behaviour (Oleldorf-Hirsch & Sundar, 2015), and real feedback improves the accuracy of individual reflected appraisals (Felson, 1985; Stets & Carter, 2011). As a result of the communication style, degree of visibility and opportunity for feedback, it can be concluded that online recognition, which provides opportunity to receive feedback, improves donors' reflected appraisal above receiving acknowledgement alone. The differential effect of online donor recognition on reflected appraisal is important, given that the results revealed that reflected appraisal is the starting point for identity verification as it informs donors' self-appraisals. Both reflected appraisal and self-appraisal influence outcomes of identity verification (accountability, emotional value and commitment to the NFP) that subsequently influence intentions to donate.

8.2.2 Varied impact of self- and reflected appraisal on marketing outcomes

Within the framework of identity theory, it has been well-established that reflected appraisals are a direct influence in forming self-appraisals in a number of contexts including academic self-concept of school children (Hergovich et al., 2002; Bouchey & Harter, 2006), athlete identities (Laverie et al., 2002), and adolescent drug use (Richard et al., 2010). This relationship was also supported within the donation context, particularly around the personal identity of being a supporter of a particular NFP. This suggests that while the 'NFP supporter identity' contains an objective measure of achievement (i.e. donating money to a charity demonstrates one is supporting that charity), whether an individual perceives achievement of this identity is also highly subjective to others' input (Felson, 1985). In light of the importance of reflected appraisals in the formation of self-views, NFPs need to offer donors with online recognition as this provides the opportunity to receive such feedback from others.

In addition to informing individuals' self-views, positive reflected appraisal was also found to give rise to feelings of accountability. Given that real feedback is received

through donor recognition by socially significant others, donors form an accurate view on what others think of their actions (Stets & Carter, 2011). Theory of impression management posits that individuals are driven to create a favourable social image from their behaviour (Wang & Stefanone, 2013). Sharing donor recognition represents a public pledge of support to a NFP, and a positive reflected appraisal is an indication that others view an individual positively as a NFP supporter. Thus, individuals feel accountable to repeat their behaviour to avoid negative views of being fake or insincere in their support for a NFP.

In contrast, a positive self-appraisal was found to directly result in higher emotional value and commitment to the NFP. Research has demonstrated that receiving acknowledgement from a NFP increases both the emotional value gained from donating (Bennett, 2007; Merchant et al., 2010), and commitment towards the charity (Bennett, 2006; Waters, 2011). However, this research argues that these effects occur through self-appraisal. Donor acknowledgement from a NFP helps to form a positive self-view of identity related behaviour (i.e. self-appraisal). This, in turn, makes the donor experience positive emotions (e.g. pride) around donating and increase commitment towards the NFP. Within identity verification, Smith and Ellsworth (1985) also demonstrate individual identity self-appraisal is the most proximal antecedent of emotion; where identity confirmation produces a positive emotional utility (Laverie & McDonald, 2007). Commitment, on the other hand, has not been identified as an outcome of identity verification. As the identity appraised in this research was related to a NFP, it is intuitive to expect organisational directed outcomes to result from self-appraisal in addition to individual directed outcomes (emotional value). Just as product satisfaction (positive evaluation of a purchase; Ercis et al., 2012) has been shown to influence brand commitment, a positive self-appraisal (positive evaluation of an action) also predicts commitment to a NFP.

Further, donor appreciation has been found to increase donors' sense of self-worth (Bennett, 2007); however this effect is through donors' appraisal (Swanson et al., 2007), specifically a positive self-appraisal was found to be a direct source of self-esteem. That is, when a NFP supporter identity is confirmed (favourable self-appraisal) this generates an increased feeling of self-worth (Asencio, 2013). Although many theorists have argued that positive reflected appraisals contribute to

positive self-esteem (Stice, 1998; Schimel et al., 2001), this research suggests an indirect effect of reflected appraisal on self-esteem through self-appraisal. Thus, an individual's overall self-view of identity consistent behaviour (self-appraisal), not the view of others, leads to increased self-esteem. However, increased self-esteem, as a result of a positive self-appraisal, appeared to be an outcome on its own; independent of intentions to donate again. This appears to be consistent with prior literature. For instance, self-esteem and intention to seek counselling were found to be uncorrelated outcomes of mental illness and seeking help self-stigmas (Lannin, Voge, Brenner, & Tucker, 2015). Song and Chathoth (2011) also found no significant direct relationship between self-esteem and choice intention, but was actually mediated by person-organisation fit. Although Pan et al. (2014) demonstrated a positive relationship between organisational-based self-esteem and positive organisational behaviour (e.g. initiative and performance), there is a lack of evidence supporting a direct relationship between enhanced self-esteem and subsequent behaviour. Rather self-esteem has often been found to influence emotional states such as depression and anxiety (Pyszczynski et al., 2004; Nima, Rosenberg, Archer, & Garcia, 2013).

8.2.3 Emotional value and accountability drive commitment which in turn influences repeat donation intentions

Overall, three marketing outcomes of donor identity appraisal were identified; accountability, emotional value and commitment. These factors play an important role in explaining how acknowledgement and recognition influence repeat donation intentions. Overall, accountability and emotional value were found to increase commitment to the NFP (not intentions to donate as originally hypothesised), which in turn, was found to be the only significant driver of intentions to donate.

The research findings showed that accountability positively influences donors' commitment to the NFP. Online donor recognition is comparable to making a public pledge of support to a NFP. Existing research has demonstrated that a public pledge or commitment to perform behaviour increases the likelihood of its actual performance due to individuals wanting to behave consistently (Cotterill et al., 2013; Mason, 2013). However, this research demonstrates that feelings of accountability (i.e. to remain consistent between actions and image) increase intentions to donate indirectly through increased commitment. Individuals who make a pledge to behave in a certain way (e.g.

act environmentally friendly) are more committed to perform the behaviour in order to behave consistently with the pledge, increasing the likelihood of its actual performance.

In addition to commitment, SEM analysis also revealed, unexpectedly, that accountability strongly influenced donors' emotional value. Accountability is an internal feeling of responsibility to do something (Frink & Klimoski, 2004); while emotional value is an internal emotional reaction which stimulates behaviour (Holbrook, 2006). As feelings of accountability occur when socially significant others see and approve of an action (and individuals want to remain consistent with this image), this appears to contribute to feeling positive about the act of donating itself (i.e. emotional value). Similarly, research has shown receiving positive feedback on a social network profile to enhance self-esteem (i.e. positive feelings towards oneself as a person in general; Valkenburg et al., 2006); while emotional value reflects positive feelings towards the act of donating (i.e. donating makes them feel good). Within an organisational context, research has found mixed support for a relationship between accountability and job satisfaction; a positive emotional reaction to a job (Oshagbemi, 1999). Of the research that identified a positive association, the authors contributed this finding to an actual or perceived awareness that others approve of one's performance (Thoms, Dose, & Scott, 2002). Such awareness is similar to the concept of reflected appraisal, which directly informs donors' feelings of accountability. It is also worthwhile to note that the pathway from reflected appraisal to accountability to emotional value is stronger than self-appraisal to emotional value directly. This further, demonstrates the importance for a more positive reflected appraisal achieved through online donor recognition.

Emotional value was also found to drive commitment. This is consistent with existing donation literature that has found a positive emotional utility to drive commitment, and subsequently donation behaviour (Sargeant et al., 2006; Merchant et al., 2010). Just as in a consumer context (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999), donors are more likely to commit to repeating actions that evoke positive emotions in order to re-experience the positive feelings. The relationship between emotional value and commitment was stronger than that between accountability and commitment. Although the relationship between accountability and commitment was only moderate

in size, this may have been due to the scenario based experimental design of Study 2A, resulting in a relatively low mean score overall. Respondents may not have had a strong enough emotional connection to situate themselves within the scenario (Kim & Jang, 2014), and the hypothetical feedback from "friends" did not represent fully the level of potential social influence others can have on enhancing feelings of accountability. Alternatively, several authors have demonstrated that internal emotional gratification is a primary reason for continued donations (Ferguson et al., 2008; Mayo & Tinsley, 2009; Chell & Mortimer, 2014). Emotions are also an important driver of repeat behaviour within identity verification theory (Laverie & McDonald, 2007; Stets & Carter, 2011). In Study One, respondents' feelings of accountability were dependent on the importance of others' opinions, whereas feeling good about donating was consistent across all respondents. Therefore, emotional value may, in fact, be the strongest predictor of commitment, and accountability a strong predictor of emotional value.

Lastly, commitment was identified as the only significant direct predictor of intentions to donate again. This is also reflected in the literature, with commitment critical to the evaluation of donor-NFP relationships (Sargeant & Jay, 2004a; Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005; Sargeant et al., 2006; Waters, 2008). Sargeant and Woodliffe (2007a) also found active commitment (as opposed to passive commitment) to be the strongest predictor of behavioural intentions. Commitment has also been found to mediate the impact of trust on donation behaviour (Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Sargeant & Lee, 2004), further supporting commitment as a mediator between emotional value and accountability, and intentions to donate.

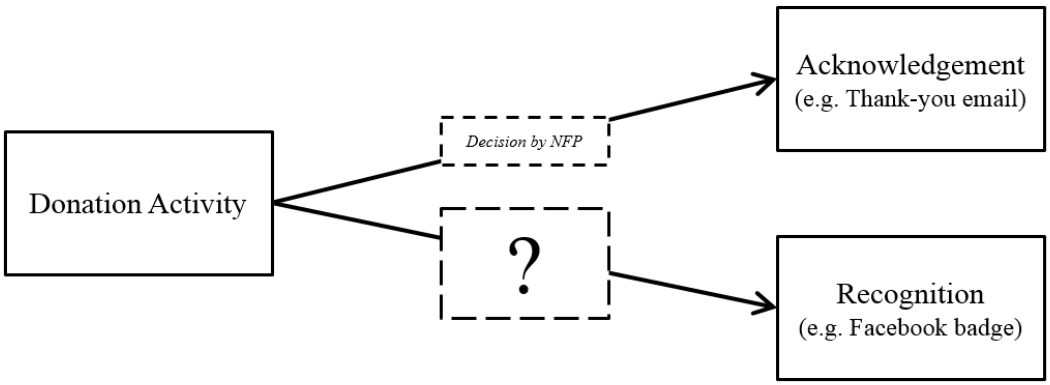
8.3 Predictors of Sharing Donor Recognition on Facebook

RQ2: Why do donors choose to share (or not share) donor recognition on social networking sites?

Self-disclosure (i.e. sharing) is a discretionary behaviour where the amount and type of information is determined by the individual (Collins & Miller, 1994). It is therefore necessary to understand the factors that contribute to this decision. Unlike the receipt of online donor acknowledgement which is directed by the NFP, receiving online donor recognition requires the donor to share the act of donation (e.g. via a badge) on

SNSs. NFPs are starting to facilitate sharing of donation activity, with limited understanding around what drives donors to engage in this behaviour (see Figure 8.2). There are groups of donors who seek to leverage increased connectivity with peers online and share their donation experience on SNSs to raise awareness and solicit praise from friends (Foth et al., 2013). Yet, overall, sharing rates of donation activity appear to be low (American Red Cross, 2014). This demonstrates the importance of understanding not only the drivers of general social media use, but also topic-specific content sharing including donation activity.

Figure 8.2 RQ2 Research Gap



Existing research has taken an aggregated approach to understanding self-disclosure on SNSs, focused on predictors of sharing behaviour in general (e.g. SNS usage, number and frequency of posts). Such models of general sharing behaviour do not account for brand related drivers (Chen et al., 2014; Shao & Ross, 2015), social appropriateness for sharing, or the inability to incentive sharing of altruistic behaviour (Hansen & Lee, 2013). This research extended existing frameworks and identified individual, social and brand-specific factors that influence donation sharing decisions on SNSs. Specifically, tendency for self-disclosure (individual factor), social norms and social risk (social factors), and involvement and advocacy (brand-specific factors) were identified as significant determinants of sharing donor recognition on Facebook. The individual characteristic of self-disclosure tendency was found to influence perceived social risk around sharing donor recognition, rather than actual intention to engage in the behaviour (section 8.3.1). Further, the impact of different types of social

norms on the decision to share donor recognition varied; descriptive norms influenced intentions directly and prescriptive norms (injunctive and subjective) influenced social risk and advocacy (section 8.3.2). Lastly, both advocacy and social risk were direct predictors of intention to share donor recognition, with brand-specific factors (i.e. advocacy) having the strongest influence (section 8.3.3).

Although self-image congruity was identified in the literature as a significant predictor of eWOM (Kim et al., 2015), it was not found to directly or indirectly drive intentions to share online donor recognition. Whether donors' self-reflective image corresponds with the image associated with donating blood, time or/ money was not important to donors' decision to communicate about their donation experience. Whilst self-disclosure on SNSs is critical to constructing a digital self, the actual act of donating (i.e. donating blood and money, volunteering) is less important to other brand-specific factors such as involvement and advocacy with the cause or NFP.

8.3.1 Self-disclosure tendency influenced social risk not intentions to share

Tendency for self-disclosure, as an individual characteristic, was not found to influence intention to share donor recognition, rather the perceived social risk attached to sharing donation activity on SNSs. Similarly, Sicilia et al. (2015) did not find a significant relationship between self-disclosure tendency and WOM behaviour. Within SNSs, attempts have been made to classify the content shared by users (Baek et al., 2011; Ramaswami et al., 2014), and outline types of information revealed through self-disclosure; often distinguishing between objective (personally identifiable) information and subjective (interest based) information (Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010; Emanuel et al., 2014). Self-disclosure tendency refers to the extent to which individuals engage in sharing such objective or subjective information, varying by breadth and depth (Omarzu, 2000).

In this research, greater breadth of self-disclosure reduced perceived social risk, while a higher tendency for depth of self-disclosure increased social risk. In other words, individuals who tend to share subjective information related to a broad range of content topics (e.g. sports, hobbies, day-to-day activities) in little detail, perceive less social risk around sharing donation activity on SNSs than individuals who tend to only share information on a small number of topics but in greater detail. This would be

particularly true for donors with greater depth of self-disclosure; if charitable donation is not one of the few topics regularly disclosed, donors would perceive greater social risk as this topic is outside their normal social network behaviour. Therefore, the extent to which individuals already self-disclose on SNSs may pre-dispose donors to sharing (or not sharing) donation activity on SNSs, regardless of social factors (i.e. social norms). It would be difficult for a NFP to manipulate these factors to encourage sharing of donor recognition, but knowledge of the motive may assist in evaluating the success of online donor recognition campaigns.

8.3.2 Descriptive norms influence intention to share while prescriptive norms influence social risk and advocacy

Following the categorisation of social norms presented by Kenny and Hastings (2011), descriptive norms describe what others actually do and prescriptive norms (injunctive and subjective) prescribe behaviour by indicating what others approve of (Stok, de Ridder, de Vet, & de Wit, 2014). In this research, social norms around sharing donation activity on Facebook were investigated; with descriptive norms found to influence intention to share donor recognition, positive injunctive norms reduce social risk, and subjective norms influence social risk and advocacy. Similarly, Park and Smith (2007) also found descriptive norms to significantly predict behavioural intentions (i.e. to sign the organ donor registry), while subjective norms were more important to enacting a social behaviour (i.e. talking to others about organ donation). This study also demonstrates the importance of treating different types of social norms as distinct constructs, which is particular important as there is some ambiguity over the uniqueness of the different types of norms (Kenny & Hastings, 2011).

Although there was a positive correlation between descriptive norms around sharing donation activity and intention to share donor recognition, the SEM analysis found this direct relationship to be negative; which is unexpected from a theoretical perspective. Social norm theory posits that the more people who perform the behaviour (descriptive norm), the more likely an individual will engage in the behaviour (Pool & Schwegler, 2007). Such a negative relationship may have occurred for three reasons. Firstly, descriptive norms have been found to influence actual behaviour rather than intentions to perform the behaviour (Stok et al., 2014). As such, descriptive norms can function as a heuristic (or decisional shortcut) for behaviour (Shah & Oppenheimer, 2008);

influencing behavioural decisions without conscious effort or awareness (i.e. behavioural intentions). Secondly, the mean score for descriptive norms was relatively low (compared to other social norms), indicating that the act of sharing donation activity on SNSs is not common. The power of descriptive norms on behaviour is through information influence; an influence to accept behavioural information obtained from others as a guide to appropriate behaviour (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955). Therefore, if others aren't performing the behaviour (low descriptive norms) this will decrease intentions to share donor recognition as it is not considered normal to do so. An alternative explanation is that while individuals may have positive descriptive norms around sharing donation activity on SNSs (i.e. through a personal post), sharing donor recognition (i.e. NFP generated post) may not be currently performed by others within a donor's social network. Therefore, individuals with positive descriptive norms may be less likely to share donor recognition through a NFP generated post as this behaviour is not consistent with what others do in terms of sharing donation activity through a personal post.

Prescriptive norms, on the other hand were found to directly influence social risk and advocacy rather than intentions to share. Positive injunctive norms (i.e. behaviour approved by society in general) and subjective norms (i.e. behaviour approved by friends) both reduce perceived social risk around sharing donation activity. Given that social risk is concerned with the uncertainty around whether a decision would be socially acceptable, having positive injunctive and subjective norms will reduce social risk as the behaviour expressed does not deviate from what others would approve of. This effect is also heightened by the public nature of sharing donation activity on SNSs (Lapinski & Rimal, 2005). Further, subjective norm was also identified as a strong predictor of advocacy; if a donor thinks their friends will approve of them sharing donation activity on SNSs, they are more likely to engage in awareness-raising activities on behalf of the NFP (e.g. positive WOM, recruitment of donors). This is important as WOM is often considered more meaningful, reliable and credible than information provided by commercial sources (Murray, 1991), and can play an important role in shaping donor decisions. Advocacy has predominantly been approached as an outcome function of brand experiences (e.g. trust and satisfaction; de Matos & Rossi, 2008; Becerra, 2013). However, this research demonstrates the importance of social influence on donors' tendency to engage in advocacy behaviour

for the NFP. Similarly, subjective norms around donating blood have been shown to strongly influence positive WOM intention; that is, individuals intention to recommend donating blood to others (Chell, Russell-Bennett, & Smith, 2015).

8.3.3 Advocacy is more important than social risk for sharing donor recognition

Overall, both social (i.e. social risk) and brand-specific (i.e. advocacy) factors were found to be the only direct predictors of intention to share donor recognition on SNSs; with advocacy have the strongest predictive power. As predicted, donors' perceived social risk around sharing donation activity negatively influenced intentions to share. Such social risk is perceived when actions (e.g. sharing donation activity) can result in socially significant others making associations between the donor and an undesired image, such as a show-off or bragger (Laroche et al., 2010); and therefore the action would be avoided (i.e. lower intentions to share donor recognition). Despite the act of sharing donation activity on SNSs being public in nature (often associated with greater social risk; Campbell & Goodstein, 2001), mean scores for social risk were relatively low; indicating that, on average, low social risk is associated with charitable donation as a topic disclosed to SNSs. This may have been a result of fairly positive injunctive and subjective norms.

According to disclosure decision-making models (Derlega & Grzelak, 1979; Omarzu, 2000), individuals assess the reasons for and against self-disclosing certain content (Derlega et al., 2008). Donors also evaluate the decision to share donor recognition, and it appears the pros (advocacy; NFP awareness generating and donor recruitment) outweigh the cons (social risk; potential negative image). In fact, the influence of advocacy on intention to share donor recognition was four times stronger that the influence of social risk. Therefore, while social risk is an important factor in content disclosure decisions on SNSs, it is less important when the content is around charitable donations. As high brand advocacy is likely to engender behaviours in support of the focal brand (Wallace et al., 2012; Becerra & Badrinarayanan, 2013), this research demonstrates that donors with high advocacy intent for a cause are more likely to engage in cause supportive behaviours, such as sharing donor recognition, as a means to generate awareness and encourage others to donate. In addition to subjective norms, donors' level of involvement with the cause was also found to strongly influence willingness to advocate for the NFP. Highly involved individuals use knowledge of

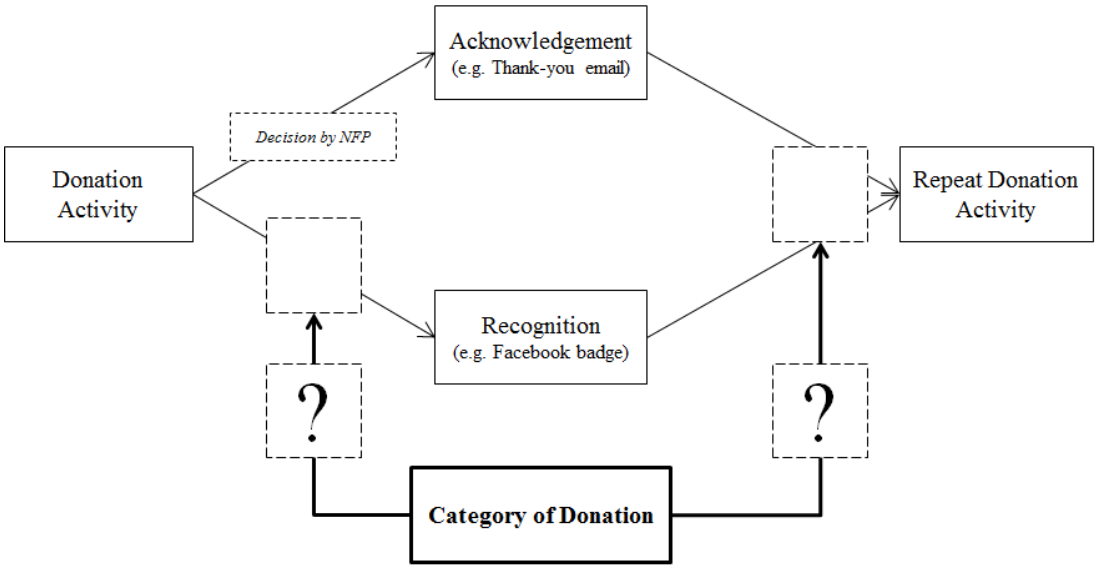
the cause to judge the appropriateness of not only repeat donations (Bennett, 2006) but also non-transactional behaviours such as advocacy (Hajjat, 2003); and are therefore more willing to advocate for the NFP (Bennett, 2009; Palmer et al., 2013). This may be attributed to the fact that individuals with high cause involvement tend to be more interested in participating to help the cause (Grau & Folse, 2007).

8.4 Similarities and Differences between Categories of Donation

RQ3: What is the effect of donation category on donor response to online donor appreciation?

Charitable donations of blood, time (volunteerism) and money are each considered distinct categories of donation, with several motivational differences identified between them. For example, blood donation is more strongly affected by feelings of moral obligation, others' expectations more strongly affect the decision to volunteer time (Lee et al., 1999), and perceived importance of need was found to significantly affect the donation money (Pentecost & Andrews, 2009). Although research was limited, there was some evidence to suggest differences exist between categories of donation and willingness to self-disclose donation activity on SNSs; with blood donation activity seemingly more likely to be shared than donations of money (American Red Cross, 2014; Dobele et al., 2014). Therefore this research investigated whether the category of donation affected donors' response to receiving online donor acknowledgement and recognition, and sharing donor recognition on SNSs (see Figure 8.3).

Figure 8.3 RQ3 Research Gap



However, no differences were identified in Study One between donations of blood, time and money in relation to RQ1; that is the underlying mechanisms that explain how online donor appreciation (acknowledgement and recognition) influence repeat donation intentions. Online donor appreciation was found to positively affect repeat donation intentions through donor appraisals as a supporter of the NFP to which donations were made (self- and reflected appraisal), subsequently increasing feelings of accountability, emotional value and commitment to the NFP; regardless of the category of donation. On the other hand, motivational differences were identified in relation to RQ2; determinants of sharing donor recognition on Facebook. Tendency for self-disclosure (breadth and depth) did not significantly vary by category of donation, further reinforcing these factors as individual characteristics independent from social or brand influence. Based on mean comparisons of constructs, blood donors and volunteers were considered fairly similar, reporting more positive injunctive and subjective norms, lower social risk, and higher involvement, advocacy and intention to share donor recognition than donors of money.

8.4.1 High investment of self increases likelihood of advocacy and sharing donor recognition on SNSs

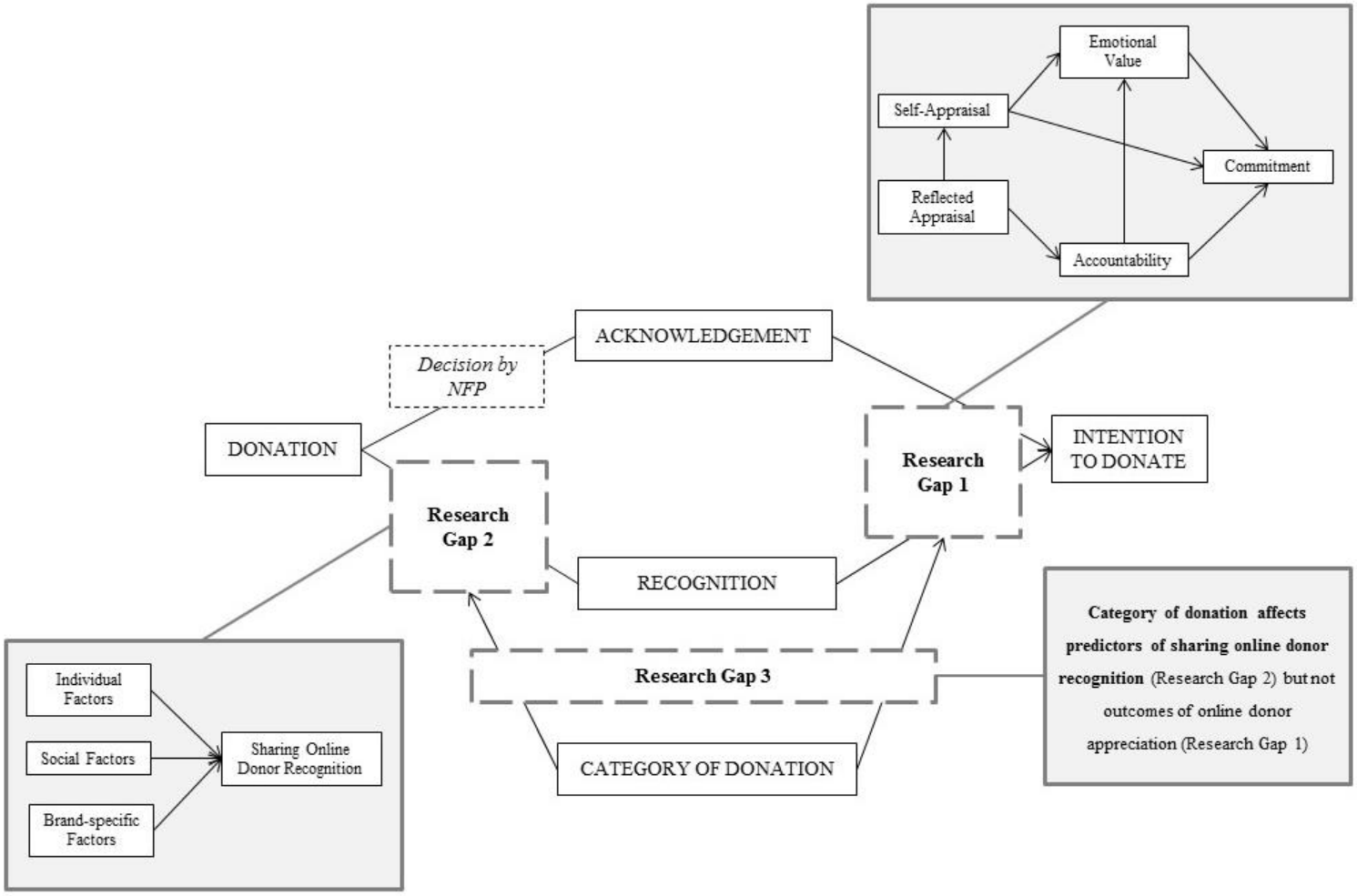
The nature of donating blood, time and money were found to vary by the investment of self (i.e. perceived cost to the donor; Lee & Kotler, 2011) and level of access to

resources or opportunity to donate (MacInnis et al., 1991). Donations of money were found to incur the lowest cost to the donor, yet there is lower perceived opportunity to donate this resource. Alternatively, donations of blood and time were considered more accessible resources to donate, but incurred a higher cost to the donor (i.e. time involved, psychological and physical discomfort). Such variances in the nature of donations were reflected in the drivers of, and engagement in, sharing donor recognition on SNSs. Donations that involved a higher investment of self and access to resources (i.e. blood and time), had an increased likelihood of advocacy and intention to share donor recognition. It is likely that such donations are perceived as more self-expressive than donations of money (Reed et al., 2007). Involvement with the cause was also significantly higher for donations of blood and time, demonstrating that exerting effort reflects a greater concern for the cause (Morales, 2005).

8.5 Theoretical Contributions

Overall this research has examined predictors and outcomes of online donor appreciation (acknowledgement and recognition) across the donation of blood, time and money (see Figure 8.4), and in the process has made three major theoretical contributions within the donor appreciation, donor identity verification and SNS self-disclosure literature. First, this thesis contributes to identity theory by demonstrating that formal communication from organisations (i.e. donor appreciation by NFPs) acts as an input into the identity verification process. Secondly, the research offers a theoretical framework, consisting of individual, social and brand-specific factors, to understand donors' decision-making process for disclosing donation activity on SNS; in particular firm-generated WOM strategies such as online donor recognition (e.g. Facebook badge). Lastly, the nature of donations of blood, time and money were found to vary according to the investment of self and access to resources. However, the category of donation was only found to affect the act of sharing donor recognition on SNSs, not the outcome processes that result from receiving online donor appreciation.

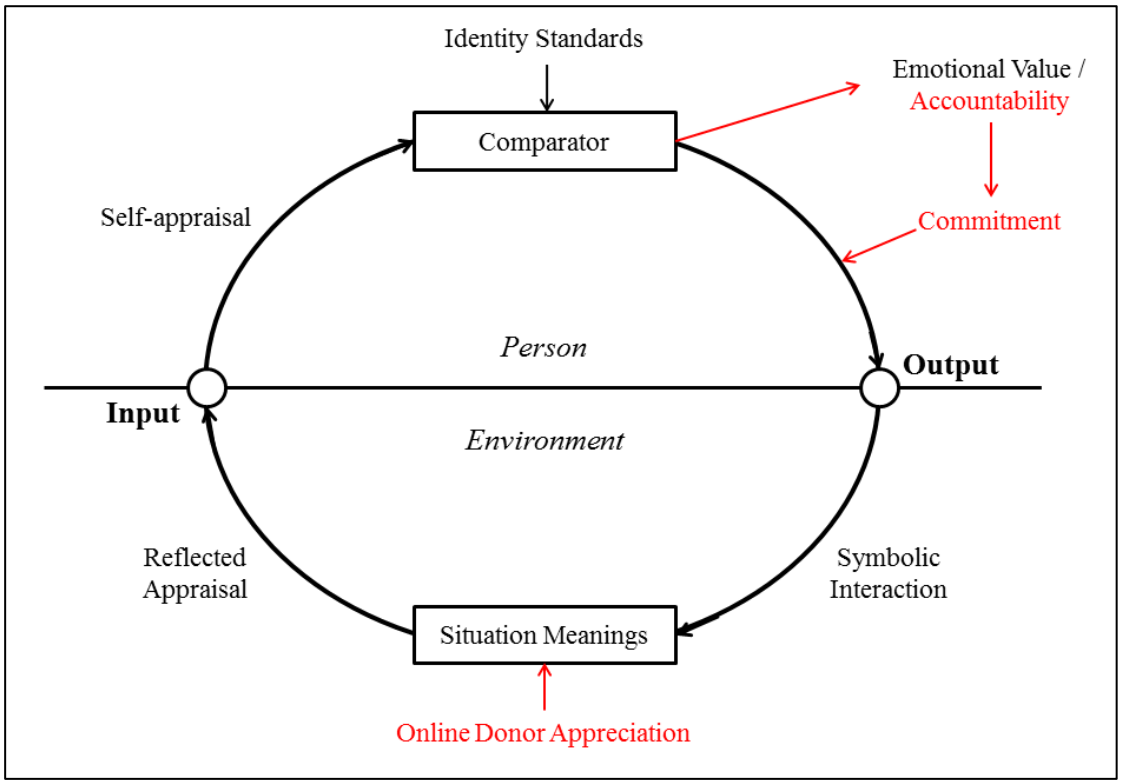
Figure 8.4 Summary of Research Gap and Research Findings



8.5.1 Online donor appreciation act as inputs in identity verification

Existing research on donor appreciation has focused on establishing a positive relationship between a NFP providing donor appreciation and increased donation behaviour (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998; Lacetara & Macis, 2010; Merchant et al., 2010). Using identity theory as a framework, this research demonstrated that online donor acknowledgement and recognition are inputs of identity verification, informing the self- and reflected appraisal components; providing further evidence of the importance of identity process in motivating and sustaining donation behaviour (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Masser et al., 2008; Sargeant & Shang, 2012). Three outcomes of identity verification (i.e. emotional value, accountability and commitment) were also identified as specific to an organisational or brand-based identity (e.g. supporter of a NFP) that lead to subsequent repeat behaviour. Figure 8.5 illustrates contributions to the identity verification process (highlighted in red) for personal, brand-related identities.

Figure 8.5 Contributions to Identity Verification Process



Identity verification is a feedback loop that serves to ensure congruency is achieved between an action and identity (Burke & Stets, 2009), and consists of the identity standard, output (behaviour), inputs (including reflected appraisals), self-appraisal and

outcomes (Stets & Carter, 2011). Self- and reflected appraisals are informed by social communication discourses (inputs) that provide cues about identity efficacy. Extending on the work of Kleine et al. (1993) and Laverie et al. (2002), who identified possessions, interpersonal relationships, media consumption as inputs to appraisal, donor appreciation by a NFP is also a social communication discourse informing donors' self- and reflected appraisal. Specifically, online acknowledgement is interpreted in relation to donors' self-appraisal, and online recognition (and the direct feedback received from friends as a result) contributes to donors' reflected appraisal.

Individual self-appraisal is often only considered as an independent personal reflection evaluating the behaviour against one's own identity standards but rarely acknowledges the importance of external sources (e.g. NFP). The basic premise of reflected appraisal is that once an identity is adopted, individuals will seek to verify their identity through feedback from others (Finkelstein et al., 2005; Harmon-Kizer et al., 2013). Receiving actual peer appraisals to improve the accuracy of reflected appraisal (Felson, 1985; Stets & Carter, 2011) is dependent on the extent to which the behaviour is visible and presents an opportunity to receive verification from others (Swann, 1983). The immediacy, interactivity and opportunity for self-expressive behaviour and digital association through online platforms (Schau & Gilly, 2003; Wang & Stefanone, 2013), and audience of socially significant others, make donor recognition via SNSs a suitable context in which to receive influential and valued feedback (Bekkers & Wiepking, 2007; Bekkers, 2010; Ellingsen & Johannesson, 2011).

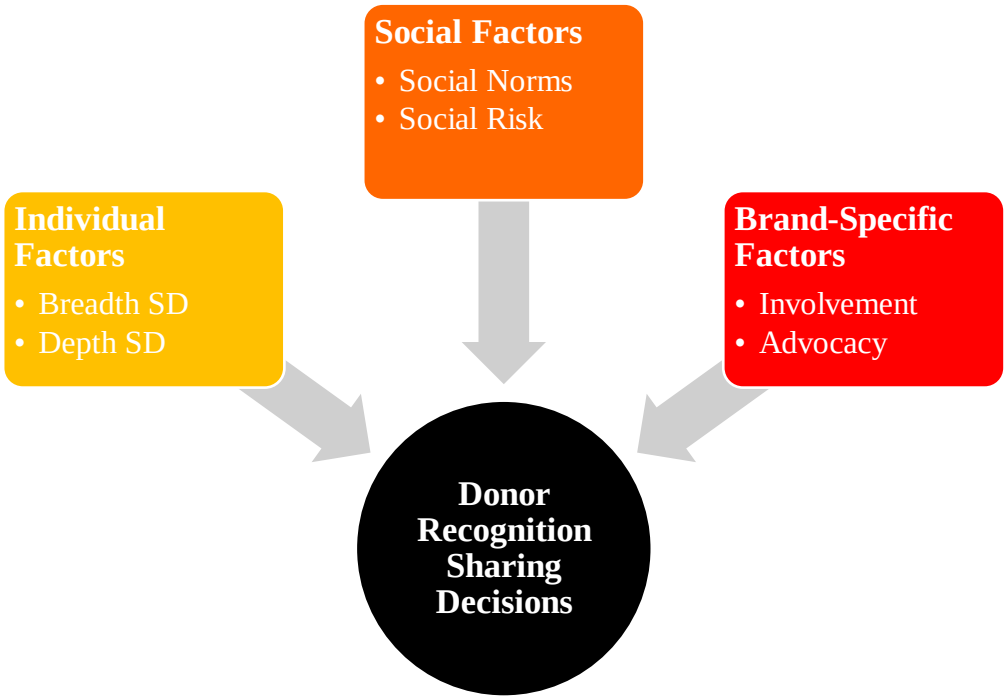
Further, online donor appreciation as a social communication discourse not only serves to inform appraisal of donation behaviour in relation to relevant identity standards, but also improve donor relationships. Although emotions (emotional value) have already been identified as a key outcome (Stets & Carter, 2011), this research extends the framework by identifying accountability and commitment to the NFP as additional marketing outcomes of identity verification, which in turn influence repeat donation behaviour. Given that emotional value and accountability were drivers of commitment, this research also contributes to existing literature around predictors of organisational commitment in the context of charity giving (Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2007). It is also important to note that the findings and theoretical contributions presented relate specifically to the identity as a supporter of a NFP; representing a brand-related

personal identity that stems from trans-situational surface traits (Hitlin, 2003; Bone & Mowen, 2006). When an identity is context specific, it is intuitive to expect context specific verification outcomes (i.e. advocacy and commitment), as opposed to a personal identity that stems from an enduring compound trait, such as an individual's moral identity.

8.5.2 Individual, social and brand-specific factors contribute to donation sharing decisions

Sharing online donor recognition reflects a positive evaluation of the NFP to which the donation was made, and is therefore considered positive eWOM as a form of self-disclosure; specifically firm-generated eWOM. Research has primarily focused on consumer-generated eWOM, and although this is important within a donation context for increasing donor commitment and recruitment efforts (Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2007; Waters, 2008; Bennett, 2014), it does not take into consideration efforts by organisations to prompt conversations and facilitate such sharing behaviour. Therefore, this research contributes to understanding topic-specific online self-disclosure (i.e. donation related content) and firm-generated eWOM. From a motivational perspective, existing research has focused on predictors of overall SNS activity, limiting our understanding around what motivates individuals to post specific content. One study has identified social factors (normative influence) and game factors (e.g. providing in-game incentives) to influence whether users share firm-generated eWOM in social networking games (Hansen & Lee, 2013). This research extends our understanding around individuals' willingness to share firm-generated WOM on SNSs (Libai et al., 2010) within a context (e.g. donation) in which such behaviour is voluntary and cannot be incentivised. Individual (tendency for self-disclosure), social (social norms and social risk), and brand-specific factors (involvement and advocacy) were identified as significant predictors of donation disclosure-decisions (see Figure 8.6); in particular sharing donor recognition on Facebook.

Figure 8.6 Predictors of Sharing Online Donor Recognition



Explored extensively in an offline face-to-face context, online self-disclosure, particularly on SNSs, is only just beginning to gain attention from researchers. The process of self-presentation on SNSs is more reflexive than face-to-face communication as individuals have more time to carefully articulate their desired image through self-disclosures (Champagne, 2008). Existing self-disclosure decision-making models (Derlega & Grzelak, 1979; Omarzu, 2000), which identify variables present across various social situations, highlight individuals' evaluation between the subjective utility of self-disclosure (reasons for) and the subjective risk (reasons against). Thus, individuals will tailor self-disclosure on SNSs in order to portray a desired image. Such an evaluation is also made by donors; with advocacy representing the potential utility of disclosing donation activity (i.e. awareness generating and recruitment benefits to the NFP), and social risk representing the perceived negative consequences to the individual (i.e. potential for negative image as a bragger). This is an important and meaningful extension of self-disclosure research, where the utility considered is external to the individual; sharing would be to benefit the NFP as opposed to their own positive self-enhancement (Bronner & de Hoog, 2011). The present research also extends the understanding of user eWOM behaviour on SNSs beyond the idea that such communication is based on product or service evaluations

(Barreda et al., 2015); where advocacy is a salient driver of sharing intention, more so than individual tendencies for self-disclosure or social risk.

8.5.3 Category of donation affects the act of sharing but not the outcome of receiving online donor appreciation

Lastly, the category of donation was only found to affect the act of sharing donor recognition on SNSs, not the outcome processes that result from receiving online donor appreciation. Aligned with the assumptions of reinforcement theory (Shields, 2007) and operant conditioning (Staddon & Cerutti, 2003), both online donor acknowledgement and recognition act as positive reinforcements to encourage repeat donation. According to McGrath (1997), such donor appreciation reinforces to the donor that their donation is making a difference and that the donor is important. This process of reinforcement was consistent across the donations of blood, time and money, with donor appreciation informing positive donor self- and reflected appraisals, resulting in increased feelings of accountability, emotional value and commitment to the NFP, subsequently increasing repeat donation intentions.

On the other hand, motivations to share donor recognition on SNSs did vary by category of donation. These differences could be attributed to the nature of the donation; varying by the degree of investment of self and access to resources required to make a donation. MacInnis and Jaworski (1989) argued that an individual's motivation to engage in behaviour is moderated by their ability and/or opportunity to engage in that behaviour. For example, Emens et al. (2014) found the relationship between actual self-image congruity and donating money and time was moderated by an individual's ability and opportunity to participate. This was supported by the study with donations of money (low access to resources) reporting significantly lower self-image congruity than donations of blood and time (high access to resources). With volunteers and blood donors reporting significantly higher advocacy and lower social risk than money donors, as well as higher intentions to share donor recognition, it appears that opportunity to donate also moderates the relationships between determinants of sharing and intentions to share donor recognition.

8.6 Practical Contributions

In addition to the aforementioned theoretical contributions, this thesis has made a number of practical contributions that will inform the strategy development for effective online donor appreciation (section 8.6.1), efforts to encourage donors to share online recognition on SNSs (section 8.6.2), and how to approach different categories of donation (8.6.3). The research findings demonstrate that online acknowledgement (via email) and recognition (via SNSs) can indeed be an effective tool for NFPs to build relationships with its donors. Online donor appreciation is shown to raise levels of future donation intention, commitment to the NFP, emotional value and accountability among donors; improving donor retention efforts.

Further, investigating new strategies (i.e. sharing a badge to Facebook) for online recognition is a contribution in itself. The research demonstrates donors' willingness to engage in donor recognition through SNSs which has positive outcomes for both the donor and the NFP. For donors, it provides the opportunity to receive positive feedback from socially significant others, resulting in a more positive reflected appraisal, self-appraisal, and emotional value from donating. For NFPs, online donor recognition serves to nurture and strengthen donor relationships by increasing donor commitment to the NFP and intentions to donate again; thus reducing donor attrition. Sharing donor recognition on Facebook also serves to advocate for the NFP to a wider audience, creating greater awareness and possible recruitment of new donors; reducing recruitment costs through firm-generated WOM activities. Within a donation context, positive eWOM (i.e. donor recognition) indirectly increases commitment and loyalty to a NFP (Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2007; Waters, 2008), by helping to cultivate brand trust online (Ha, 2004; Ruparelia et al., 2010). Further, positive eWOM can play an important role in donor recruitment as the information coming from a donor (as opposed to the NFP) is considered more meaningful (Sojka & Sojka, 2008; Bennett, 2014). It is therefore in NFPs' best interest to encourage sharing behaviour of online donation activity.

8.6.1 Strategies for effective online donor appreciation

Despite a lack of understanding of how donor appreciation affects donation behaviour, NFPs are beginning to offer donor acknowledgement and recognition through online

platforms. This research provides three suggestions to strategically guide the use and development of online donor appreciation for donations of blood, time and money. Firstly, to the extent that the impact of a donation can be quantified and personalised, NFPs could include such information to stress the donation impact to the organisation to improve donors' self-appraisal, and increase emotional value and commitment. The qualitative findings of Study One suggested that providing information demonstrating how the donation has helped the cause further confirms the consistency between an action (i.e. donating) and donor identity with the behavioural expectation of 'helping people' as an identity standard; thus improving donors' self-appraisal. Communication that informs donors about how their donation will be used increases the tangibility of the outcome, which is more valuable than just being told the donation was appreciated (O'Neil, 2009), as it confirms the donation was a worthwhile use of resources. Individuals receive more emotional value from donations when the benefits to the cause are apparent, and are subsequently more likely to donate again (Cryder, Loewenstein, & Scheines, 2010; Cryder & Loewenstein, 2011; Oppenheimer, 2015)).

Secondly, NFPs should always acknowledge donations (Merchant et al., 2010), but could ask donors for their preference for a letter (offline) or email (online). The qualitative results in study suggested that some donors placed more value on the tangibility of a letter, while others preferred email to reduce costs for NFPs. Further, online recognition is not desired by all donors. Tendency for self-disclosure on SNSs, as an individual characteristic, is beyond the influence of NFPs, but should be taken into consideration when evaluating the engagement rate of online donor recognition programs. NFPs should give the decision-making power for donor recognition to all donors; allowing them to opt-in. This research found that regardless of whether or not the individual would personally share donor recognition, being offered it was not considered a deterrent towards making future donations to that particular NFP. The preference for online acknowledgement or recognition appears to be both dispositional (stable over time) and situational (depends on the context). For individuals with a dispositional preference for acknowledgement (Chmielewski et al., 2012), being offered something to share to SNSs (i.e. donor recognition) was not considered a deterrent towards making future donations to that particular NFP.

For individuals with a situational preference for recognition, age (Glynn, et al., 2003; Yuan et al., 2011), motivation (Lei et al., 2011; Phillips & Phillips, 2011) and donor career stage (Bennett, 2007; Merchant et al., 2010) have been identified in the literature as potential contributors. This research also identified preference was contextual based on the platform and timing of donor recognition. Donor recognition through SNSs was considered appropriate for recognising individual donors both regularly (i.e. every donation) and intermittently (i.e. minor milestones e.g. 1st, 5th and 10th blood donation), as opposed to more broadcast platforms such as a NFP's website or local newspaper. Furthermore, offering donors online donor recognition in addition to acknowledgement allows NFPs to leverage naturally occurring social influence to increase feelings of accountability, emotional value and commitment, and ultimately increase repeat donation intentions. The combination of online acknowledgement and recognition produced similar self-appraisal scores to providing acknowledgment alone, but much higher reflected appraisal which is important to improving donors' reflected appraisal and increasing feelings of accountability. Bingham et al. (2003) also found combining acknowledgement and recognition of alumni donations, compared to using a single strategy, increased the size of future donations.

8.6.2 Strategies to encourage donors to share online donor recognition

This thesis provides a strategic direction for NFPs to motivate donors to promote donation activity on SNSs, particularly engage in firm-generated eWOM programs such as online donor recognition. The current research brings awareness to this new phenomenon of online donor recognition on SNSs, to better understand donor behaviour in the digital world, and more importantly, how NFPs can use this pattern of knowledge. With increasing competition in the sector, marketers struggle to generate viral 'buzz' for their NFP. Although donors may positively support a NFP, they may or may not express such opinions to others in an online environment. Overall, campaigns by NFPs asking donors to share donor recognition should strive to (1) minimise social risk and (2) maximise advocacy. These findings provide practitioners with insight into the important motivations associated with the sharing donor recognition.

Firstly, it is important to normalise the acceptance, not the performance, of sharing donation activity on SNSs to minimise perceived social risk. Donors can influence

numerous individuals by presenting their own experiences (Bolton et al., 2013). Just as personal communication is a more effective way of establishing pro-donation social norms as opposed to mass media communication (Lemmens et al., 2005; Lemmens et al., 2009), targeted communication to donors should reinforce the social acceptance of sharing donation activity (Park & Smith, 2007).

Secondly, it is suggested to tailor donor communication to maximise activation of advocacy propensity (i.e. to help the NFP) to trigger positive eWOM activity; in the form of sharing donor recognition. This research revealed that, on average, donors perceive greater utility in the act of sharing donor recognition to Facebook than social risk. A want to advocate for NFPs is reflected by Lemmens et al. (2008), who found almost 60% of their blood donor sample was willing to act as a recruitment agent for a blood donation organisation. To strengthen the perceived utility to advocate for a NFP, it is important to demonstrate the positive outcomes of advocacy behaviour. Sharing donor recognition on Facebook is not only an effective retention strategy (by increasing donors accountability, emotional value and commitment), but may also prove to be a useful recruitment strategy as well. Research has demonstrated the importance of having family and friends who support donation (subjective norm) or donate themselves (descriptive norm) when motivating donors (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Godin et al., 2005). Particularly in blood donation, many studies have listed interpersonal influence from active blood donors (i.e. friends or family) as an important recruitment channel for new blood donors (Jason, Rose, Ferrari, & Barone, 1984; Glynn et al., 2002; Misje, Bosnes, & Heier, 2008). Further, Lemmens, Ruiter, Abraham, Veldhuizen, and Schaalma (2010) found that donors who were provided with a leaflet designed to enhance recruitment motivation and donor registration postcards that can be used to facilitate recruitment of new donors, talked to more people about donating blood and persuaded more people to register as a blood donor than the control group. Those who received both the leaflet plus the postcards reported more new donor registrations at 6-week follow-up than donors who received only the postcards or nothing at all. Thus, NFP generated strategies that motivate and facilitate donor recruitment efforts are important.

In interpreting the results of this study, NFPs may need to pay particular attention to highly involved donors to boost online advocacy behaviour. It is suggested to test the

efficacy of online recognition strategies with donors who find the cause of high interest and importance. NFPs need to develop a relationship between donors and their cause to build a feeling of attachment. For example, NFPs could tailor the donor recognition to identify the difference the individual has made towards the cause (i.e. create a personal and emotional attachment to the donors effort) or highlight the individual contributions to the cause so far (i.e. recognise milestones to encourage further loyalty). As consumers develop a bond with a certain NFP (involvement), their experience will lead to advocacy activity, and subsequently, share donor recognition.

8.6.3 Strategies for different donation categories

Online acknowledgement and recognition play an important role in influencing repeat donation activity across the donation of blood, time and money, and should be given adequate consideration by NFPs. However, it is important to keep the category of donation in mind when encouraging donors to share donor recognition. Money donors were less likely to share donor recognition on SNSs, than blood donors or volunteers. This is could be related to a lower propensity for advocacy of the NFP, and higher social risk reported by money donors. The lower willingness to share donations of money on SNSs is attributable to a societal taboo around openly talking about money (Trachtman, 1999; Wong, 2010).

Talking about money is a learned discomfort, where many people remain conflicted or reclusive about discussing money, even among family members, close friends or spouses (Krueger, 1991; Atwood, 2012).There is no acceptable level of wealth but a common knowledge that access to money is unequal (Lloyd, 1997). The effect of this contradiction is that money is considered both mysterious and bad (Klein, 2001), causing informal social constraints to euphemistically discuss money or not at all. Therefore it is important to reduce perceived social risk for money donors when encouraging engagement in online donor recognition strategies. The qualitative findings of Study One suggested that this could be achieved by normalising the behaviour, and tailor donor recognition content to focus on the cause or impact of the donation, rather than the individual contribution (i.e. I donated $20). By focusing on the cause, this will be more positively perceived by others, as an act of advocacy (i.e. promote the cause) than status-seeking behaviour (i.e. promote the individual), which is considered a negative character trait and often avoided (Kataria & Regner, 2015).

8.7 Limitations and Future Research

Just as recognising the contributions of the research is important, so too is noting the limitations of the research design, as well as potential areas of interest, that provide directions for future research. Four limitations were identified; (1) the potential generalisability of the results may be limited, (2) online donor recognition was only examined post-donation presenting the potential to look at pre-donation as well, (3) donor preference for online donor appreciation was not incorporated, and (4) only a general Facebook badge was examined to determine predictors of sharing donor recognition, where tailored content could affect intentions to share. The charitable cause or NFP for which donor recognition is presented, general use of Facebook, and demographic characteristics such as age and donor status, are also presented as potential moderators that may impact sharing decisions for future research investigation. Further research is also needed around increasing donor response rate for online surveys.

8.7.1 Generalisability

While the inclusion of three donation behaviours (i.e. blood, time and money) improves the broader application of the research, caution needs to be taken when generalising the results to other donation behaviours, such as organ donation or the donation of household good. The generalisability of the results may also be limited due to the analysis and sample recruitment. ANOVA was performed to assess differences between category of donation and factors influencing donors' decision to share online donor recognition, due to the sample size being too small for independent SEM analysis of each donor group. Further, as the ANOVA results demonstrated that money donors were significantly different to blood and time donors, this means the combined sample data is heterogeneous. Monetary donors were recruited using convenient methods which may also reduce the generalisability of the model (Zikmund et al., 2011). Secondly, although the qualitative results suggested that the process between receiving online acknowledgment and recognition, and subsequent intentions to donate again, was similar across the donation of blood, time and money, the results were only empirically tested with a sample of blood donors. Thus, while qualitatively supported, the model requires further testing within a sample of time and money donors to improve generalisability.

8.7.2 Online donor recognition examined post-donation only

This thesis examined online donor recognition post-donation, that is, on receipt of making a charitable donation. However, donation behaviours such as volunteering and blood donation require individuals to commit to the donation prior to its performance, for example signing up to volunteer at a fundraising event or making an appointment at a blood donation centre. Study one revealed that the appropriate timing of sharing donor recognition varied across category of donation. Disclosing donations of money was considered most suitable post-donation, as it often occurs spontaneously, whereas sharing periodic volunteering activity most often occurs pre-donation as this increases opportunity for individuals to elicit support from others to volunteer as well. Alternatively, blood donation can be disclosed pre-donation (appointment made) and post-donation.

It has been demonstrated that gaining a commitment or pledge to perform a socially desirable behaviour, increases the likelihood that the individual will follow-through and perform the desired behaviour (Werner et al., 1995; Cioffi & Garner, 1996; Baca-Motes, Brown, Gneezy, Keenan, & Nelson, 2013). Furthermore, when commitment is expressed publicly, compared to a private commitment, subsequent behaviour has been shown to be significantly higher (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). For example, Cotterill et al. (2013) found individuals were more likely to donate a book when they made a pledge and were offered pubic recognition, than just making a pledge alone. Sharing a form of donor recognition pre-donation will serve to increase the likelihood of following-through with the donation as individuals will feel accountable to carry out their commitment (Bator & Cialdini, 2000; Cotterill et al., 2013; Mason, 2013). This is particularly important to blood donation in Australia, where according to Blood Service records, 13.41% of appointment holders in the last 12 months did not attend their blood donation appointment (G. Shuttleworth, personal communication, April 12, 2016). Therefore, it would be interesting moving forward to examine the use of donor recognition on SNSs at the pre-donation stage.

8.7.3 Preference for online acknowledgement and recognition was not incorporated

Respondents were randomly assigned to either the acknowledgement or recognition scenario in Study 2A, without considering (or measuring) preference for donor appreciation type. Individual differences in preference for online acknowledgement or recognition were apparent in the qualitative Study One; with differences based on the audience of appreciation, the frequency of sharing and the need to receive social validation. Just as donors have their own personal set of motivations for donating, individual preference for acknowledgement or recognition is also consistent with prior research (Low et al., 2007). For example Chmielewski et al. (2012) found some blood donors preferred private acknowledgement and others responded positively to recognition (i.e. branded tokens) due to the awareness raising benefit to the NFP. Similarly, Foth et al., (2013) identified some blood donors prefer to be discrete and private with their donation decisions while others wanted to conspicuously share their donation activity with others. Further, preference for online acknowledgement or recognition may also be explained by a donors' self-disclosure tendency and general use of Facebook. An individual's disposition for online self-disclosure has been shown to vary in relation to usage rates of SNSs (Chen & Sharma, 2015). Trepte and Reinecke (2013) demonstrated that disposition for self-disclosure and SNS use interact reciprocally; that is one increases the other. It is likely that donors who exhibit high usage of SNSs and positive tendency to share on Facebook may prefer to receive online donor recognition than simply an acknowledgement email. Therefore, general use of SNSs and preference for online acknowledgment or recognition may moderate the strength of relationships in the models tested examining outcomes (study 2A) and predictors (study 2B) of online donor appreciation.

8.7.4 Facebook badge content could affect intentions to share

Further, Study Two only examined sharing intentions of a general badge (see Figure 8.7), yet the qualitative findings suggested that the content of the badges could affect donors' decision to share. Such content could vary by focusing on the donors' individual contributions (i.e. individual focused badge) or focusing on the impact the donation made towards the NFP's cause (i.e. cause focused badge). From the qualitative Study One, recognising individual contributions intermittently (i.e. at

milestones as opposed to every donation) within the badge content was preferred by some respondents (and reduced social risk for volunteers and blood donors) as it is viewed more of a personal achievement than simply 'another' donation. Andreoni and Petrie (2004) found when information on donation activity is coupled with identification of the donor, this improves donation behaviour. Therefore, recognising milestones may be an important way to cultivate long-term donor relationships.

Figure 8.7 Example Content for Facebook Badges

Alternatively, Facebook badge content could adopt a gain-framed message approach (Cao, 2016); that is, include information on the benefits (impact) resulting from donation to a particular cause (e.g. one blood donation saved three lives). According to the findings in Study One, including the donation impact has the potential to increase respondents' willingness to advocate for the NFP as it would more likely encourage others to donate, while at the same time reduce social risk as respondents anticipated a more positive reaction from their social network. Oppenheimer (2015) argues that increasing the tangibility of the donation, by communicating the impact of the donation, increases the psychological benefits a donor receives from donating. From an audience perspective, the more individuals can imagine the impact their donation could have, the more likely they are to donate as well. Therefore, including the donation impact in online donor recognition has potential retention and recruitment benefits for the NFP.

8.7.5 Potential moderators of sharing decisions

The next step in theory development is to understand the parameters in which a theory holds by integrating moderators into a research design (MacKinnon, 2011). The

bivariate correlations presented in Appendix F identified that as age increased, so did reported social norms, advocacy and breadth of self-disclosure, while social risk decreased. Prior research has found age and donor status to influence interest in incentives, where younger and new donors are more encourage by incentives than older repeat donors (Sanchez et al., 2001; Glynn et al., 2006). However, this research suggests that older donors may be more likely to share donor recognition, which may also be linked to number of donations as this was significantly positively correlated with age.

The charitable cause may further impact determinants of sharing donor recognition, given that some people may prefer to be publicly linked to some causes rather than others (Grace & Griffin, 2009). For example, some individuals may openly donate to help homeless children but prefer to be more private with their donation to an appeal in relation to AIDS or mental health. Body and Breeze (2016) present the notion of 'unpopular causes', highlighting that despite the tens of thousands of 'good' causes, generosity is not equally spread among them. Within the top 100 most popular causes in the UK (Pharoah, 2011), there is a high representation of cancer charities, whereas charities supporting addiction issues or refugees do not feature at all in the list. This was also reflected in the qualitative data, where the level of involvement to a cause or NFP appeared to affect whether a donor would share recognition for that particular NFP. Involvement was suggested as a strategy used to inform donors' disclosure set, where highly involved donors may use their knowledge of the issue in making judgements of the merits of engaging in public support (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983). Thus, people who regard the donation activity as personally relevant and important, interesting and necessary (i.e. high involvement; Bennett & Gabriel, 2000), may have greater confidence in the integrity of the cause or NFP and consequently be more likely to share donation activity. This will present useful insights for future research.

8.7.6 Strategies needed to improve donor survey response rates

Lastly, further research is needed to develop strategies to improve donor response rates to online surveys. To appeal to respondent's sense of altruism, a $2 charitable donation to either the NFP they currently support (for volunteers) or a NFP of their choice (for money donors) was offered to encourage participation. Despite this, very low response

rates were achieved for volunteers recruited directly through the NFP to which they volunteer with (response rates for money donors could not be calculated due to convenience sampling methods, but gaining participants was also drawn-out over a long time period). Where the sample contacted was greater than 1000, response rates varied from 0.4% to 3.0%. These findings are consistent with a randomised trial conducted by Nesrallah et al. (2014). The researchers found no significant difference in response rate between physicians who were offered a $40 charitable donation to be made on their behalf to the Kidney Foundation of Canada, and those who were not. Even though the NFP would benefit from participation, offering to make a charitable donation on respondent's behalf might not be an effective incentive. Therefore further research is needed to identify ways to increase donor research participation, and shape research recruitment strategies to appeal to donor motivations (Vocino, Polonsky, & Dolnicar, 2015).

8.8 Conclusion

Despite a limited understanding of how donor appreciation increases donation activity, NFPs provide it to motivate donor action, and are beginning to utilise online platforms to do so. Overall, this thesis has addressed a current lack of understanding around the underlying processes explaining the relationship between receiving online donor appreciation and repeat donation behaviour, motivations to share online donor recognition on SNSs, and the impact of category of donation on the outcomes and predictors of online donor appreciation. The findings have important implications for theory and practice in donor behaviour. First, this thesis identified that online donor acknowledgement (i.e. thank-you email) and recognition (i.e. Facebook badge) are useful inputs that inform donors' self-and reflected appraisal within the identity verification process. Positive self- and reflected appraisals enhance donor relationships and future donation intention, by increasing feelings of accountability, emotional value and commitment to the NFP.

Secondly, in order for online donor recognition to influence repeat donation activity, such recognition needs to be shared to SNSs by donors. The results from this thesis provide a theoretical framework to understand donors' decision-making process for disclosing donation activity on SNSs; in particular firm-generated WOM strategies such as online donor recognition (e.g. Facebook badge). Individual, social and brand-

specific factors were identified as influential in donors' decision to share (or not share) donor recognition on Facebook. While perceived social risk influenced self-disclosure decisions, donors' propensity for advocacy was a more salient predictor. Lastly, motivational differences were identified between donations of blood, time and money in relation to the act of sharing donor recognition on SNSs, not the outcome processes that result from receiving online donor appreciation. These differences were attributed to the investment of self and access to resources that characterise each category of donation differently.

In an age in which NFPs can lose up to 50% of donors after their first or second donation, research into understanding strategies (such as online donor acknowledgement and recognition) that influence the repeat occurrence of charitable support is an important undertaking. To the extent that online donor appreciation is less costly than traditional means of appreciation, this research has provided new insights for NFPs to consider using online platforms to develop effective donor acknowledgement and recognition that leverage natural occurring social influence on SNSs to motivate continued donation behaviour. However, academic interest in online donor appreciation mirrors the uptake of NFPs' use of online channels; with both are at an emergent stage. As such, there are still areas of online donor appreciation that require exploration.

APPENDIX A: Interview Guide Study One

Facilitated by: Kathleen Chell

Process:

A. Thank participant for their time

We have come together today to discuss your opinions, experiences and feelings about being a donor of (time/ money/ blood). There are no right or wrong answers to the questions we'll discuss. I'm simply interested in your opinions and experiences. This discussion is a totally confidential conversation. Any information I record and demographic information will not be kept by the Queensland University of Technology, and summary reports will not identify you in any way.

B. Explain the process of the interview

Today's process involves us having a conversation to discuss your opinions, experiences and feelings about being a donor of (time/ money/ blood). I expect the complete process to take approximately 45 minutes. I would like to audio record today's session, because I will be transcribing this discussion for analysis purposes. When we have completed the study, a copy of the summary report will be made available to all participants.

As part of the University's ethical clearance policies, we also require you to complete the following two forms:

1. A consent form to take part in the research; it is a requirement of the university's research policy to complete this form. The document outlines that the research team will respect your confidentiality and that any information discussed here today will not be used to personally identify participants here today in any publications or conference discussions.

[Start audio recording]

C. Opening discussion

Aim: Identify donation experience

When did you start donating (time/ money/ blood)? How many times have you donated since? Would you class yourself as a novice or experienced donor? Why?

If novice, what do you think makes a donor experienced? Why?

If experienced, at what point in your donor career do you feel you became experienced at donating (time/ money/ blood)? Why?

Aim: Understand donor identity development

Is being a donor important to you? Why? Since your first donation, have your feelings and opinions towards being a donor changed? Why?

Aim: Identify social norms around performing and promoting donation

Do you discuss (donating money/ volunteering/ blood donation) with your friends or co-workers? In your opinion, is being a donor considered good by others? Why/ why not? Do you encourage others to donate? *If yes,* have you always encouraged others?

[Key area 1 – Donor appreciation]

Aim: Explore donor attitudes and experiences towards donor appreciation

Do you think it is important to appreciate donors for their contribution? Why?

Have you received acknowledgement/ recognition from a NFP organisation for making a donation? Do you like being recognised for making a donation? Why/ why not? How does it make you feel towards donating again? Did it encourage you to continue donating? Why/ why not?

How do (would) you feel when (if) you receive no acknowledgement/ recognition from a NFP organisation for making a donation?

How do you feel towards public acknowledgement? What does public recognition mean to you? If recognition was seen by (everybody through broadcast media/ by other donors/ by your personal network) would this change your opinion on being publicly recognised?

If you knew that being recognised publicly would help others – contribute to the social norm, start a conversation about donating (time/ money/ blood) or the cause, make others feel more confident about donating – would this change your opinion about being recognised publicly? Why/ why not? Do you think sharing something on social media about your donation will encourage others to support the cause/ donate? Why/ why not?

When others are aware of your volunteering/ donation activity, how does that affect your decision to donate again? Does it make you feel accountable to continue to donate? Why/ why not?

[Key area 2 – Sharing donation activity online]

Aim: Identify general social media activity

What do you post about on social networking platforms? What do others post about? Do people post about donation activity? Why/ why not? Is there a difference between posting about donation activity and other things?

Aim: Explore attitudes towards sharing an act of donation and online donor recognition

Have respondent consider the following hypothetical situation: Someone you know has shared a post on their Facebook page about their recent donation.

Why do you think they would do this? Is there any difference between sharing donation activity over other types of content?

Have you ever shared a status on social media about donating? Why/ why not? If you were emailed a link from the NFP organisation to share a badge on social media, would you share it? Why/ why not?

What makes you feel okay (not okay) with sharing your donation activity with others on social networking platforms? If you donate (time/money) to multiple NFPs, would you share your donation activity with all of them? Why/ why not? (Probe: *Importance of the charity, cause type)*

Aim: Explore the role of social validation (i.e. feedback from others)

If you could consider again that someone you know has shared a post on their Facebook page about their recent donation.

If they received positive feedback from their network, how would it make them feel? Why? Would it make donating more important to them?

Why is it important to have support from others for your decision to donate? When is feedback needed do you think, every donation, only for the first few donations? What about if they received no feedback?

How would your social network react if you shared a badge on your social networking page about a recent donation?

If you receive feedback from others, how does that make you feel personally/ about being a donor/ donating again in the future/ towards the NFP organisation?

D. Would you like to add anything else, or raise any other points?

E. Thank participant for their time

[End audio recording]

APPENDIX B: Participant Information Sheet Study One

Queensland University of Technology Brisbane Australia	**PARTICIPANT INFORMATION FOR QUT RESEARCH PROJECT** **– Interview –**

Exploring online donor appreciation by NFP organisations

QUT Ethics Approval Number: 1400000391

RESEARCH TEAM

Principal Researcher:	Kathleen Chell	PhD Student
Associate Researchers:	Professor Rebekah Russell-Bennett	Principal Supervisor
	Dr Gary Mortimer	Associate Supervisor

School of Advertising, Marketing and Public Relations – QUT Business School, Queensland University of Technology (QUT)

DESCRIPTION

This project is being undertaken as part of a PhD research program by Kathleen Chell of the QUT Business School. The purpose of this project is to explore your opinions, experiences and feelings about being a donor and the use of online appreciation.
You are invited to participate in this project because your opinions are important and the information you provide will enable the researchers to determine what motivates continued charitable behaviour. These findings will inform the development of more effective recruitment and retention strategies aimed at donors.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation will involve an audio recorded interview on campus at the Queensland University of Technology that will take approximately 30-45 minutes of your time. Questions will include:

- Would you class yourself as a novice or experienced donor?
- When you donate, how does it make you feel?
- Do you think it is important to recognize donors for their contribution?

Your participation in this project is entirely voluntary. If you do agree to participate you can withdraw from the project without comment or penalty. Your decision to participate or not participate will in no way impact upon your current or future relationship with QUT. In appreciation of your time, you will receive a box of chocolates as a small thank-you gift at the end of the interview.

EXPECTED BENEFITS

It is expected that this project will not benefit you directly. However, it will potentially benefit society as a whole if donation rates increase as a result of strategies developed based on this research. A summary of the project results is available upon request by emailing the research team directly.

RISKS

There are no risks beyond normal day-to-day living associated with your participation in this project.

PRIVACY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

All comments and responses will be treated confidentially unless required by law. We seek your permission to audio record this discussion and reassure you that the information we record and summary reports will not identify you in any way. The audio recording will be destroyed after the contents have been transcribed. The audio recording will not be used for any other purpose than that outlined previously. Any data collected as part of this project will be stored securely as per QUT's Management of research data policy. The data collected in this study may be used as part of future collaborative research. Data used in future research will remain non-identifiable.

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

We would like to ask you to sign a written consent form (enclosed) to confirm your agreement to participate.

QUESTIONS / FURTHER INFORMATION ABOUT THE PROJECT

If have any questions or require further information please contact one of the research team members below.

Kathleen Chell	07 3138 8076	kathleen.chell@connect.qut.edu.au
Professor Rebekah Russell-Bennett	07 3138 2894	rebekah.bennett@qut.edu.au
Dr Gary Mortimer	07 3138 5084	gary.mortimer@qut.edu.au

CONCERNS / COMPLAINTS REGARDING THE CONDUCT OF THE PROJECT

QUT is committed to research integrity and the ethical conduct of research projects. However, if you do have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project you may contact the QUT Research Ethics Unit on (07) 3138 5123 or email ethicscontact@qut.edu.au. The QUT Research Ethics Unit is not connected with the research project and can facilitate a resolution to your concern in an impartial manner.

Thank you for helping with this research project. Please keep this sheet for your information.

Queensland University of Technology
Brisbane Australia

CONSENT FORM FOR QUT RESEARCH PROJECT

– Interview –

Exploring online donor appreciation by NFP organisations

QUT Ethics Approval Number: 1400000391

RESEARCH TEAM CONTACTS

Kathleen Chell	07 3138 8076	kathleen.chell@connect.qut.edu.au
Dr Gary Mortimer	07 3138 5084	gary.mortimer@qut.edu.au
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STATEMENT OF CONSENT

By signing below, you are indicating that you:

- Have read and understood the information document regarding this project.
- Have had any questions answered to your satisfaction.
- Understand that if you have any additional questions you can contact the research team.
- Understand that you are free to withdraw at any time, without comment or penalty.
- Understand that you can contact the Research Ethics Unit on 07 3138 5123 or email ethicscontact@qut.edu.au if you have concerns about the ethical conduct of the project.
- Understand that the project will include an audio recording.
- Understand that non-identifiable data collected in this project may be used in future projects.
- Agree to participate in the project.

Name .....

Signature .....

Date .....

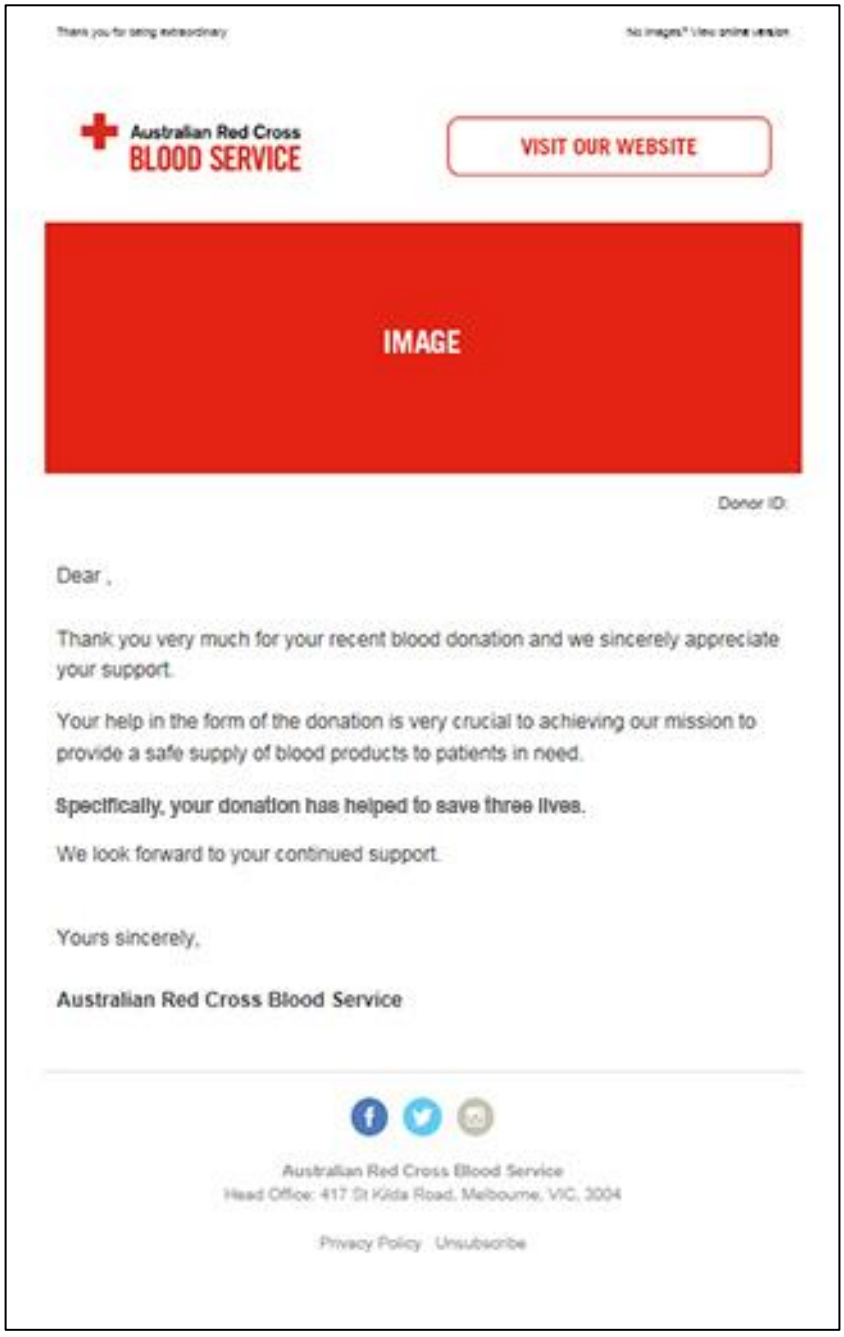
Please return this sheet to the investigator.

APPENDIX C: Study 2A Scenarios

Acknowledgement Scenario

Instruction Text

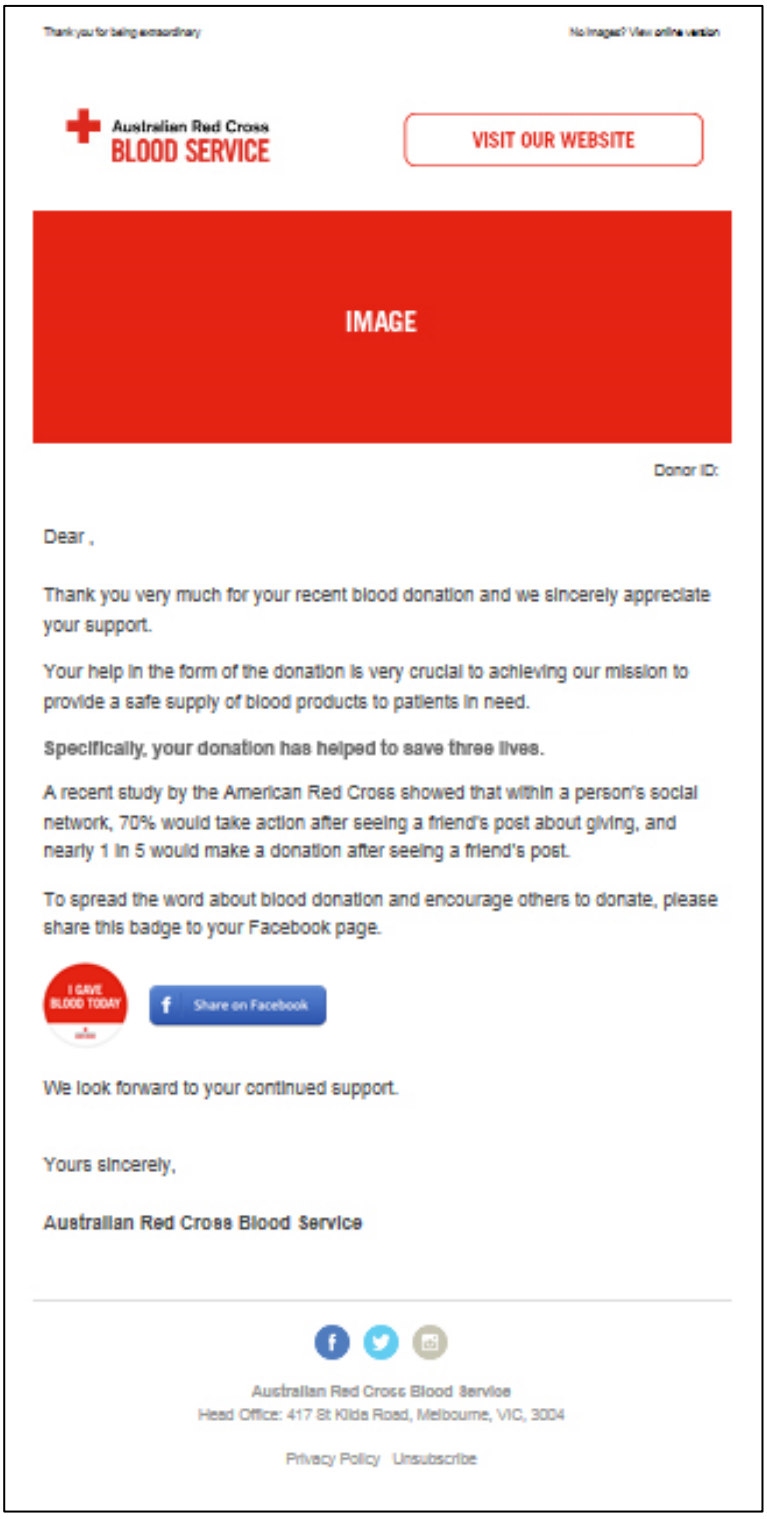
Please read the following text carefully and spend a few minutes imagining that you have recently donated blood with the Blood Service and you received an acknowledgement for the donation in the form of a thank-you email (see below).



Recognition Scenario

Instruction Text

Please read the following text carefully and spend a few minutes imagining that you have recently donated blood with the Blood Service and you received an acknowledgement for the donation in the form of a thank-you email (see below).



Thank you for being extraordinary

No images? View online version

Australian Red Cross BLOOD SERVICE

VISIT OUR WEBSITE

IMAGE

Donor ID:

Dear ,

Thank you very much for your recent blood donation and we sincerely appreciate your support.

Your help in the form of the donation is very crucial to achieving our mission to provide a safe supply of blood products to patients in need.

Specifically, your donation has helped to save three lives.

A recent study by the American Red Cross showed that within a person's social network, 70% would take action after seeing a friend's post about giving, and nearly 1 in 5 would make a donation after seeing a friend's post.

To spread the word about blood donation and encourage others to donate, please share this badge to your Facebook page.

I GAVE BLOOD TODAY

Share on Facebook

We look forward to your continued support.

Yours sincerely,

Australian Red Cross Blood Service

Australian Red Cross Blood Service
Head Office: 417 St Kilda Road, Melbourne, VIC, 3004

Privacy Policy Unsubscribe

Upon receiving the thank-you email you proceeded to share the badge to your Facebook account (see below) and after a week **you received positive feedback in the form of likes, supportive comments and indications that others have donated as a result of seeing the post** about your recent donation.

APPENDIX D: Study 2A Full Correlation Matrix (Sample characteristics and model variables)

	SA	RA	EV	CM	SE	AC	INT	Age	Gen	Emp	Inc	LD	NoD	Rec	DT
Self-Appraisal	1														
Reflected Appraisal	.38*	1													
Emotional Value	.34*	.32*	1												
Commitment	.61*	.39*	.56*	1											
Self-Esteem	.26*	.20*	.22*	.23*	1										
Accountability	.22*	.34*	.52*	.42*	.20*	1									
Intentions to Donate	.33*	.17*	.26*	.37*	.17*	.15*	1								
Age	.02	.02	-.09	-.00	-.04	-.04	-.11*	1							
Gender	.08	.16*	.02	.15*	-.03	.05	.02	-.08	1						
Employment Status	-.03	-.02	-.12*	-.02	.12*	-.02	.03	.34*	-.05	1					
Income	-.08	-.07	-.25*	-.13*	.09	-.14*	-.03	.48*	-.13*	.74*	1				
Last Donation	-.08	-.03	-.12*	-.02	-.17*	-.02	-.15*	-.06	.06	-.00	-.01	1			
Number of Donations	.06	.05	-.09	.10	-.09	-.14*	.12*	.44*	-.04	.27*	.33*	-.19*	1		
Recommended Others to Donate	-.14*	-.14*	-.09	-.15*	-.10	-.16*	-.11*	-.13*	.02	-.14*	-.13*	.13	-.35*	1	
Donor Type (multi or single)	.13*	.06	.07	.11*	.07	.09	.05	.02	-.03	.01	.06	-.06	.10	-.13*	1

* $p < .05$

APPENDIX E: T-Test Study 2A

Comparing donors who have had someone donate blood based on their recommendation and donors who have not.

	Group*	**Mean**	**SD**	***t***	**df**	***p***	**95% CI**	
							Lower	**Upper**
Self-Appraisal	1	5.30	.61	2.72	354	.007	.053	.330
	2	5.11	.67					
Reflected Appraisal	1	4.95	.94	2.67	354	.008	.075	.497
	2	4.66	1.03					
Emotional Value	1	5.32	1.03	1.71	354	.088	-.030	.423
	2	5.12	1.06					
Commitment	1	5.98	.77	2.65	209	.009	.070	.476
	2	5.71	1.01					
Self Esteem	1	3.35	.53	1.79	354	.074	-.010	.216
	2	3.24	.49					
Accountability	1	4.08	1.63	3.03	354	.003	.194	.914
	2	3.53	1.69					
Intentions to Donate	1	6.56	.88	1.94	221	.054	-.004	.436
	2	6.34	1.07					

*1= Yes, someone has donate blood based on the donor's recommendation, 2 = No

APPENDIX F: Study 2B Full Correlation Matrix (Sample characteristics and model variables)

	DN	IN	SN	SR	INV	AD	SIC	BSD	DSD	INT	Age	Gen	Emp	Inc	LD	TD	Rec
Descriptive Norm	1																
Injunctive Norm	.42*	1															
Subjective Norm	.40*	.71*	1														
Social Risk	-.08	-.34*	-.34*	1													
Involvement	.13*	.23*	.27*	-.05	1												
Advocacy	.28*	.49*	.62*	-.21*	.55*	1											
Self-Image Congruency	.31*	.41*	.43*	-.07	.46*	.50*	1										
Breadth SD	.09	.17*	.21*	-.18*	.15*	.28*	.20*	1									
Depth SD	.16*	.10	.20*	-.16*	.09	.18*	.16*	.35*	1								
Intention to Share	.13*	.39*	.49*	-.28*	.35*	.63*	.37*	.30*	.17*	1							
Age	-.01	.06	.13*	-.19*	.08	.13*	.12*	.16*	-.0.4	.20*	1						
Gender	.19*	.04	.03	.05	.13*	.09	.06	-.03	-.01	-.04	-.17*	1					
Employment	-.07	.07	.12*	-.17*	.04	.05	.06	.05	-.14*	-.02	.40*	-.05	1				
Income	-.12*	.03	.04	-.16*	-.02	.01	.04	.06	-.14*	.06	.55*	-.18*	.75*	1			
Last Donation	.02	.01	.08	.02	-.08	.04	-.08	-.07	.05	.01	-.12*	.10	-.06	-.08	1		
Total Donations	-.07	-.08	-.14*	-.05	.04	-.09	.08	.08	-.12*	-.11	.16*	-.17*	.05	.09	-.44*	1	
Recommendation	-.14*	-.03	-.11*	.08	-.07	-.13	-.15*	-.21*	-.12*	-.12*	-.14*	-.04	-.14*	-.18*	.14*	-.23*	1
Donor Type	.03	.08	.10	-.11*	.02	.10	.10	.06	.05	.09	-.02	.05	.03	.00	.05	-.10	-.00

* $p < .05$

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